

their acquisitions; the transfer of landed estates, nay, the
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 terposition of the surveyor, and so of many other things which
 do not apply to the survey of sea coasts. No wonder that it
 hath not been usual to distinguish these two kinds of surveying
 from each other, as they happen to agree exactly in their chief
 part, viz. in determining the figure of the thing surveyed; for
 the same means by which we obtain the true form of an estate
 on of a country, whether it borders on other land or a flood, or
 is a mere tract of water, may be applied to the survey of sea
 coasts. It must be acknowledged, however, that there are se-
 veral circumstances in which they differ from each other, effect-
 ally where the maritime is taken in the extensive sense in which
 this author has considered it, by including the soundings, and

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 culars is certainly very necessary to commerce, and of such im-
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ARTICLE I.

*A Treatise of Maritim Surveying, in Two Parts: with a Prefa-
 tory Essay on Draughts and Surveys. By Murdoch Mackenzie,
 sen. late Maritim Surveyor in his Majesty's Service. 4to. 6s.
 Boards. Dilly.*

Although surveying, in general, be one of the oldest among
 the sciences, in so much as to have given birth and
 name even to geometry itself; and the writers upon other parts
 of it are almost innumerable; yet, we do not recollect that
 any person, before this author, has expressly treated of that
 branch of mensuration which particularly respects the sea-coast.
 Admitting that it is generally the necessity for an art which
 gives occasion to its rise and improvement, and that the ne-
 cessity for maritime surveying may be very great as well as that
 of land surveying, yet the natures of those necessities are ex-
 ceedingly different; the frequent alterations undergone by the
 objects of the latter requiring new inventions in practice,
 while the more invariable state of the maritime department
 seldom makes recourse to such expedients necessary. Many oc-
 currences occasion the measuring of the earth and its several parts,
 from kingdoms down to the smallest field; even peace and
 war, though producing contrary effects in other things, unite
 in promoting and exercising this art. Hence we have had
 surveys and maps of new-conquered provinces; Alexander took
 with him surveyors to delineate his journeys and conquests;
 the Romans exposed to public view, in triumph, the maps of

their acquisitions; the transfer of landed estates, nay, the letting of a farm or even a turnip field, will require the interposition of the surveyor; and so of many other cases which do not apply to the survey of sea coasts. No wonder that it hath not been usual to distinguish these two kinds of surveying from each other, as they happen to agree exactly in their chief part, viz. in determining the figure of the thing surveyed; for the same means by which we obtain the true form of an estate or of a county, whether it borders on other land, or a brook, or a large river, will also assign us the figure along any part of the sea-coast. It must be acknowledged, however, that there are several circumstances in which they differ from each other, especially where the maritime is taken in the extensive sense in which this author has considered it, by including the soundings, and determination of the channels and anchoring places of harbours, and the rocks, sands, shoals, currents, tides, &c. in the neighbourhood of them. The knowledge of these particulars is certainly very necessary to commerce, and of such importance as to authorise a person, so well acquainted with the business as this gentleman seems to be, to address the public on maritime surveying.

There is, no doubt, much more difficulty in writing a book on a new subject than on one of which many have treated before; because, that the writer has both his subject to teach, and also his plan or mode of instruction to invent and lay down. And we are glad to find, that this author has acquitted himself so well in this respect: for he has shewn himself a good writer, as well as an able practitioner in his art; which is not very common in treating of the sciences.

We shall give a short account of the manner in which Mr. Mackenzie treats his subject, with occasional remarks as we go along.

After a prefatory discourse, or essay on the different kinds of draughts and surveys, he divides his treatise into two parts, each part into five chapters, and each of these into several sections, problems, &c. The first part contains the geometrical principles, and other pre-requisites of surveying; and consists chiefly of such things as are common to other kinds of surveying as well as maritime.

Of this part, Chap. I. enumerates the necessary qualifications of a surveyor.

Chap. II. consists of the four common cases, or theorems, of plain trigonometry.

Chap. III. treats of longimetical operations and problems; shewing the various methods of obtaining the distances between places,

places, either according as their situation and attendant circumstances may induce, or as the nature of the intended survey and draught may require.

In this part, almost the only thing which we find peculiar to the subject, is a problem for measuring a line on the surface of the sea. In the latter case, at the bottom of p. 23, when the angle is more than ninety degrees, we think the construction should be demonstrated, as well as in the former, it not being so very evident to all readers. We are not of the author's opinion, that the two methods given in the next page are attended with greater facility than those laid down in the three preceding problems; which contain the substance of a paper published in N^o 69, of the Philosophical Transactions, by Mr. John Collins. Our author's next problem also, *To find the distance of two points or stations from each other, and from two other points whose distance asunder is known, and which are both visible from each of the former*, is the first of three problems in N^o 177 of the same Transactions; and it might not, perhaps, have been amiss, had he likewise availed himself of the other two. The next, Prob. 8. *To find the distances of a point from two others, which lie at a given distance and bearing from each other, without any measuring, but only observing, at the required point, the bearings by the needle of each of the other two*; is easily reduced to practice, and must often be useful in large surveys.

Chap. IV. contains an account of various good methods of examining and using several instruments for measuring angles.

In Chap. V. is presented a select collection of astronomical problems, for finding a meridian line and the variation of the needle, very judiciously laid down and explained.

This chapter concludes the first of the two parts into which the work is divided, and employs indeed more than half of the book, notwithstanding it consists only of preliminary subjects; on which account, however, our author did well to class them together in one part.

There is a common fault in small writers, of employing the chief part of their books in teaching the several sciences preceding that from which they are denominated, or necessary to be known by those who are to read or learn that particular subject; and which are generally delivered in a very indifferent and incomplete manner by that set of writers. Their common pretence is to render their works independent of all others, but the practice is, in fact, no other than an imposition on the public, who are thus obliged to purchase the same

subjects over and over again. Although our author has partly fallen into the custom of those writers, yet we would not reckon him in the number of them; most of the introductory propositions here delivered, are not peculiar to his subject, but belong in common to many others; and he certainly has not aimed at swelling his book with entire treatises on the several subjects to which those prolegomena respectively belong, but has made a judicious selection of such parts of them only as have an immediate application to the subject of which he professes to treat. Besides his having arranged those materials in a method the most convenient for the learner, he has also explained them better than they generally are done, and in such a manner as more immediately relates to the design of the work.

In Part II. Mr. Mackenzie treats more minutely 'of the procedure and operations in surveying sea-coasts, according to their various circumstances.'

Chap. I. teaches how to form what the author calls a staff-metric scheme of points, by which the distances along the coast may be determined.

Chap. II. contains various methods of the procedure in surveying sea-coasts under the more common or ordinary circumstances, with several examples of the process with regard to bays, harbours, rivers, and islands, and the delineation of the coast-line on paper.

Chap. III. consists in like manner of the procedure in surveying them when they are unfavourably circumstanced.

Chap. IV. gives the methods of determining, describing, and avoiding rocks and shoals. It treats also of the tides; soundings, &c. teaches the copying and reducing of draughts, and enumerates the instruments and necessaries for such surveys. Among these he might have added a scale finely divided at the edges into plane scales of equal parts, as it protracts distances by application much more expeditiously than by a pair of compasses; and we may likewise observe, that instead of charcoal, for blacking over the back of a rough draught to be copied, it is better to use a piece of black lead, or the powder of it.

In Chap. V. is contained the method of finding the longitude by the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites, and of continuing a meridian, or north and south line, through a kingdom; as also a parallel of latitude, or east and-west line, through the same. The author is mistaken in directing to convert *apparent* time into *mean* or *equal* time, in order to compare the *observed* times of the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites with the *calculated* times

times in the Nautical Almanac; for, in that work, they are not calculated to equal but to apparent time.

Upon the whole, candour obliges us to observe, that Mr. Mackenzie has acquitted himself, in this first treatise on maritime surveying, with a degree of accuracy which merits approbation; and that he has not only discovered a thorough knowledge of it himself, but has also explained it in such a manner as cannot fail of being useful to others who may have occasion to make such kind of surveys or draughts.

As a specimen of the author's writing, we shall here extract the third Example of Chap. II. Part 2.

‘ E X A M P L E III.

‘ *How to proceed in surveying an extensive coast.*

‘ Case 1. If the coast extends northward, or southward, take, carefully, the latitudes of two remarkable hills, or promontories along the coast, as near the true meridian as they can be found, and as far from each other as can be seen distinctly; suppose 20, 30, or 40 miles. From their difference of latitude, bearings, and variation of the needle, find their distance in miles and parts of a mile (by longim. prob. 2. p. 12.) make the chord of that arc, or distance, the base-line, and by it form a stasimetric scheme of points; one, or two of them, representing remarkable and sharp objects. If one, or more, of the objects lie off the coast at sea, it will be a conveniency; for there will be fewer objects to intercept the sight of these. When the stasimetric scheme is verified, and transferred to some sheets of clean paper, and a number of magnetic meridians, and east-and-west lines, drawn over it, then begin to survey and delineate the coast, as directed in example II.

‘ It will sometimes happen that no one proper object is to be seen from both ends of so long a base line, with which to form a stasimetric scheme; but if any remarkable intermediate object, properly situated, is seen at one end of the base-line, and the other end seen at that object, its distance may be found with equal, or rather more accuracy, by taking one angle of the triangle, formed by the base-line and object, at that end of the base-line where it is seen, and the other angle at the object; thence the third angle is found; and the distance of the object. These three determined distances will be sufficient for finding all other distances between the two extremities of the base-line; and also for determining other stasimetric objects necessary for continuing the survey far beyond these extremities.

‘ Let it be observed, that if the quadrant with which the latitudes of the two places were found, and the observations, are good, a base-line of 30, or 40 miles measured in that manner, is more to be relied on than such a distance determined by a base-line of three or four miles measured on a plane: because it is rare to find planes so long without some sensible irregularities in them; and more rare to meet with two so remote objects sharp enough for taking the angles at each end of such a base line with precision. These two sources of inaccuracy may occasion a greater error in a distance of 20, or 30 miles, than can be supposed when the latitudes are carefully taken with a good quadrant.

‘ When the survey has been continued by a train of stasimetric triangles a considerable length beyond the base-line, it will then be proper to discontinue the procedure on that foundation, and to measure a new base-line; either on a level plane, or by two latitudes, as before; taking care to have two determined points common to both draughts, for connecting them into one.

‘ If the instrument with which the angles are taken does not give them minutely enough; or if the objects that form the stasimetric triangles are not sharp enough, errors may be expected, and will undoubtedly become sensible in a long-continued series of triangles. How far they have actually taken place in the draught may be discovered by comparing the observed bearings of distant hills or head-lands, whose positions have been determined by former observations, with their bearings in the draught: or, by comparing such moderate distances as one can judge of by the eye, with their protracted distances on the paper.

‘ When a considerable length of the coast has been surveyed, the soundings marked near it, and all the rocks, shoals, banks, remarkable hills, buildings, groves of trees, and other distinctions of the coast inserted and expressed in the draught; then sail along it, six, eight, or ten leagues from the land, according as it can be seen distinctly; sound the depth of the water, observe the setting of tides and currents, and sketch views of the coast as you sail, inserting in them the names of the most material hills, heads, entries of rivers, harbours, &c. so that seamen may know, by the eye, where the principal places on the coast lie, and how to steer for them.

‘ Case 2. If the coast to be surveyed extends eastward, or westward: chuse a remarkable hill, or head, near the coast, and another hill, or remarkable object up the country, northward or southward; find their distance by measuring a plane, or by
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the latitudes, and make that distance the base-line; from thence form a stasimetric scheme of points; and with it proceed to survey and delineate the coast as before directed.

‘ If any part of a coast that extends eastward or westward is so circumstanced, as neither to have in it a level plane fit to be measured, nor any hill or remarkable object up the country, or lying off the coast, far enough distant to become a base-line by taking their latitudes: in that case, build a wall or turret, of earth or stone, on the most conspicuous part of the shore; and another turret three or four miles from it up the country, and so large as to be seen five or six miles off, or farther: measure the distance of the two turrets by the velocity of sound, and make that a base-line from whence to determine trigonometrically the distance of the other stations and signals set up along the coast for that purpose: from these last, find other distances: then, if you meet with no plane fit to be measured, nor any remarkable hill or object, at a sufficient distance and position for determining a new base-line by the latitudes; measure a new base-line by sound, and proceed as before. Such a case as this is very rare; but when it happens, a good portable telescope, or spy glass, will be found convenient, and should be provided accordingly.

‘ That the maritim survey of a kingdom, or large tract of continent, may be carried on with expedition and accuracy together, it is necessary one superintendant, or head-surveyor, expert in theory and practice, should have two assistants under him, who are capable of executing his orders. Their duty is, to conform to his directions diligently and faithfully, as far as can be done; to omit no part of the coast, nor neglect any rocks, shoals, channels, tides, or necessary soundings; to be at pains to get information concerning them from the inhabitants, or pilots, wherever they come, but to insert nothing in their draughts but what has been actually examined by themselves; to keep a daily journal of their operations, observations, and likewise of what informations they may receive from others that have not been examined by themselves.

‘ The head-surveyor's duty is, to plan and direct the procedure of the whole survey; to order the vessel, boats, and men on the service when and where he sees it necessary; to chuse proper planes and distances for measuring fundamental base-lines; to see the mensuration, or celestial observations himself; to pitch on proper objects for the stasimetric scheme; and see the angles taken that determine their distances; to inspect the calculations and protraction; to verify the scheme when protracted; to cause a clean copy of it to be made out

for himself, and one for each of the assistants; to send one of them to survey on one side, or towards one end of the base-line; another on the other side or end of it, and himself to remain with the vessel that attends the survey, and to survey in that neighbourhood; to examine their several performances when they return to the vessel; to compare the most material distances in their draughts with the observations by which they were determined; to point out mistakes, or defects, and cause them to be corrected; to insert the several observations, measurements, descriptions, and sailing directions regularly in a book; to join the several parts of the coast, as they are completed, into one draught; and when that is of a sufficient extent, to cause a clean, distinct copy to be made of it aboard: then to sail in the vessel to the next stationary harbour; to cause soundings, and useful views of the coast to be taken by the way, and such remarkable objects on land to be inserted in the draught, as may have been omitted by the assistants. There will be no great advantage in having more than two assistants under one superintendant; for this would often occasion either delays in waiting for one or other of them before the scene of operation could be shifted; or else a superficial inspection of their performances.

• Toward the end of harvest, when the days are turning short, and bad weather may be expected more frequently, a survey will be sooner dispatched, if the examination of shoals and sand-banks, that lie at a distance from the land, is postponed till the end of the following spring; and the survey of the coast only, and the soundings near it, or of rivers and narrow arms of the sea, are taken in the winter and spring seasons.

• Though in general it is better that a considerable part of a coast be surveyed before the soundings are taken near it, yet often both may be dispatched together with sufficient exactness; by making an eye-sketch of the small bays and windings of the coast as you go from point to point in a boat to determine their distances, taking the soundings by the way, and inserting them in the corresponding parts of the sketch as near as you can judge; and at the same time marking down the direction of the boat, or on what object her head is kept, in sailing or rowing from place to place; and the bearing of one or two objects when the principal soundings were taken: when that part of the coast is surveyed, these soundings may then be transferred to the draught by the bearings, and by the direction in which the boat was steered. If any shoals are met with, take marks on them, or two contiguous angles

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by Hadley's quadrant, and examine them more particularly afterward, when the survey of the adjacent part of the coast is finished.'

II. *Political Disquisitions: or, an Enquiry into public Errors, Defects, and Abuses. Illustrated by, and established upon Facts and Remarks extracted from a Variety of Authors, ancient and modern.*
1 Vol. 8vo. 6s. boards. Dilly.

NO single original work was ever published which contained so much useful knowledge as may be comprised in a judicious compilation. In productions of this kind, we are presented with the sentiments not of one, but of a multitude of authors; whence the errors and prejudices so natural to the human understanding are most readily discovered, and the dubious track of reason is enlightened by all the luminaries of science. The author of the *Disquisitions* before us appears to have consulted with unwearied application the most approved historians and writers on the subject of politics, for the purpose of collecting such facts and remarks, as serve to illustrate the principles of the British constitution, and enable his readers to distinguish between the abuses and salutary regulations not only in the legislative, but also in the executive part of our government. The method by which he has been guided in extracting this great collection of political observations increases their value in a high degree, by shewing that the object of his researches was not to confirm by authorities any doctrines in favour of which he was prejudiced; but indiscriminately to adopt the various remarks made by writers of distinguished reputation, ancient and modern, and by an application of the principles on which those are founded, ascertain the merits or defects of the government of this country.

In the first chapter of the work, the author briefly explains the nature and origin of government in general; after which he proceeds to shew, in the second chapter, that the people are the fountain of authority, and the last resource in government. He then takes a short view of government by representation; and next, the advantages of parliamentary governments.

In the second book, he enters into a particular consideration of various circumstances relative to parliaments, respecting their irregularity and deficiency, by establishment, or abuse. Under the former head, he treats of the disadvantages of inadequate representation, and of the length of parliaments. He lays before us, at some length, the arguments for and against

gainst the responsibility of members of parliament to their constituents; and afterwards treats of parliamentary corruption, and ministerial influence in the house.

That our readers may be enabled to form a judgment of this work, we shall present them with part of what is advanced on the subject of excluding auditors from the house of commons, and punishing those who publish the speeches there delivered.

‘ Another consequence of the inadequate state of parliamentary representation, and of too long parliaments, is, a dangerous power assumed by the commons, of clearing their house, and excluding their constituents from the satisfaction of knowing how their deputies behave themselves, and whether they consult the public interest, or play the game into the hands of the ministry. Upon the same principle they found the practice of punishing all persons who publish any speeches made in their house.

‘ As to the house of lords, supposing it once granted, that that it is wise to allow any set of men a power of consulting for themselves, without regard to the public, and putting a negative upon the most salutary national proposals, if thought by them likely to entrench upon their particular privileges (a point, the proof of which I should be sorry to have imposed on me) supposing, I say, a house of lords upon the foot of the British, it follows, that they have a right to exclude all, but peers, from their deliberations; because they are doing their own business, and not the public; they are acting for themselves, and are principals, and not deputies.

‘ But surely the faithful representatives of the people, cannot dread the people’s knowledge of their proceedings in the house. An aristocracy of persons, whose interest may be different from that of the people, a court of inquisition, or a Venetian council of Ten might be expected to shut themselves from the sight of the people, but not a house of representatives assembled, by the people’s order, to do the people’s business. How are the people to know which of their delegates are faithful, and ought to be trusted again, or which otherwise, if they are to be excluded the house?

‘ Even in the house of peers, this custom has been blamed.

‘ It is not, my lords, said the earl of Chesterfield on this subject, A. D. 1740, by excluding all sorts of strangers that you are to preserve the antient dignity of this assembly: it is by excluding all manner of quibbling, impertinence, deceit, weakness, and corruption. These, I hope, are strangers here; I hope your lordships will take care never to admit any one of them

them within these walls; but by excluding other strangers, when you have nothing of a secret nature under consideration, you will only raise a jealousy of the dignity of your proceedings; and if this jealousy should become general, without doors, you will in vain seek for respect among the people."

' There were many strangers in the gallery of the house of peers, on occasion of the enquiry into lord Peterborough's conduct in Spain, A. D. 1711. A motion was made to clear the gallery. But the duke of Buckingham opposed it, and they were suffered to stay,

' The commons, A. D. 1714, having cleared their house of all strangers, not excepting peers, it was moved in the house of peers, that the house be cleared of all strangers, not excepting members of the house of commons. The duke of Argyle opposed the shutting of the house of peers, and said, it was for the honour of that august assembly, to shew that they were better bred than the commons.

' Hakewel says, the commons finding persons in their house who had no right to be there, have obliged them to take an oath, that they would keep secret what they had heard.

" Of right the door of the parliament ought not to be shut, but to be kept by porters, or king's serjeants at arms, to prevent tumults at the door, by which the parliament might be hindered.'

' It was common in former times for the members themselves to publish their speeches made in the house. Accordingly there are extant to this day, many of them in pamphlets of those times, and in Rushworth's, Nalson, and other collections. In our times it is punishable to publish any of their doings, though they do not themselves publish them, and the very gallery is cleared, that we may not know which of our deputies is faithful to us, nor which betrays us.

' The order of the house of commons against printing the speeches was made, A. D. 1641, in times which our courtly men will hardly allow to be of good authority. The order itself is not justifiable upon any principles of liberty, or of representation, unless the debates were regularly published by the members. For published they ought undoubtedly to be; if delegates ought to be responsible to their constituents. My lord mayor, therefore, and Mr. alderman Oliver were severely dealt with in being sent to the Tower, A. D. 1771, for defending the printers in doing only what ought to have been done by the members.

' Sir Edward Dering's speeches were published by himself, A. D. 1641.

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“ Resolved, that they are against the privilege of the house, and shall be burnt by the hangman in Westminster, Cheapside, and Smithfield; himself disabled during the parliament, and to be imprisoned in the Tower, during the pleasure of the house.” He was released, however, in a few days.

“ A. D. 1720, the proprietors of the redeemable funds being discontented, petitioned to be heard by council against a bill then before the house. They went in considerable numbers to the lobby, to wait the event. The justices were ordered to clear the passages. They read the riot-act. On which occasion, some of the petitioners said, It seemed to them a strange proceeding, to treat a set of peaceable subjects, people of property, who attended the house to complain of grievances, as a riotous mob; and that the commons first picked their pockets, and sent them to jail for complaining.

“ Whatever has been advanced in support of printing the Votes and Journals, is equally strong against clearing the house. The house of commons is the people’s house, where the people’s deputies meet to do the people’s business. For the people’s deputies, therefore, to shut the people out of their own house, is a rebellion of the servants against their masters. That the members of parliament are, according to the constitution, servants, is manifest from the notorious fact of their constantly receiving wages for many centuries together, which members, accordingly, forfeited by absence, neglect, &c. “ Who sent us hither?” (says Sir F. Winnington, in the debate upon this subject, A. D. 1681.) “ The privy-council is constituted by the king; but the house of commons by the choice of the people. I think it not natural, nor rational, that the people who sent us hither, should not be informed of our actions.” Suppose the directors of the East-India company were to shut out the proprietors from their house, and then dispose of their property at their pleasure, defying all responsibility, how would this be taken by the proprietors? The excluding the people from the house of commons, and punishing the publishers of their speeches, is precisely the same encroachment on the people’s rights; only so much the more atrocious in consideration of there being no regular appeal from parliament, whereas there is from the directors of a trading company.”

If this volume meets with the approbation of the public, the author intends to lay before them the remainder of what he has collected on other important political subjects. This work cannot fail of being highly useful to members of parliament, and all those who are desirous of acquiring a knowledge of the principles

ciples and defects of the British constitution; as the most valuable materials on these subjects are here collected from the best authorities, and arranged in methodical order.

III. *Observations on the Power of Climate over the Policy, Strength, and Manners of Nations.* 8vo. 3s. Almost.

AS far as the policy and manners of men can be supposed to receive a bias from the vigour or debility of their constitutions, so far may we admit the influence of climate on the political regulations of society. If we look into history however, we shall find but little reason for ascribing to the temperature of the air alone, so powerful an effect on human manners, as is maintained by the abettors of that hypothesis. The climate of Greece, we presume, is the same at present that it was upwards of two thousand years ago, yet where is now that noble spirit of liberty, and that glorious heroism which so much distinguished the ancient inhabitants of that country? The climate of Rome, it is likewise well known, was never remarkably favourable to corporeal strength, though under it the love of liberty long flourished in so high a degree as has never been surpassed by the robust inhabitants of the North. The author of the treatise under our consideration acknowledges that the effect of climate on the policy and manners of nations, may be greatly varied by other circumstances, and he illustrates his subject chiefly by observations drawn from our own country.

We shall present our readers with the chapter in which he describes the influence of the enervating causes on the inhabitants of South Britain some ages after the Norman conquest.

The glorious reigns of our kings of the Plantagenet race present an hostile countenance to that principle which I had endeavoured to establish from the effects of soil and situation upon the inhabitants of South Britain. I have wished to convey to my reader an idea, that the temperature of our climate is favourable to the growth of every virtue, but our soil and situation are enemies to the preservation of them, ever working to their corruption as they rise to maturity; that if accidents, lucky events, or good policy, shall remove the embarrassments of the enervating circumstances, and restore to climate a freedom of acting, its genuine force will then disclose itself, and virtue be again the characteristic of South Britain. What were the causes which restored this power to climate, and continued it almost without interruption, from the

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Conquest until the time of Henry VII. I shall now endeavour to shew.

' The Norman barons, from the time their ancestors had seized upon the province of Neustria, were obliged to wage almost perpetual wars with the kings of France, who were piqued, and with good reason, at seeing a feudatory imposed upon them, too proud and too powerful to be dependent upon the crown; the art of war through necessity was their chief study, and their wonderful achievements in Italy and Sicily shew the great excellence of Norman discipline; by force they became masters of England, and force was to be used in preserving it; the Scotch, who had espoused the interest of the Saxon royal family, were to be held in observation; a descent of the Danes was with reason to be apprehended; the Saxons, whom they had taken by surprise, indeed soon became incorporated with the victory; brave by nature as themselves, they soon caught their noble ardour, and became masters of their discipline. The increase of territory accruing to our sovereigns by intermarriages with the houses of Anjou and of Aquitaine, enlarged their intercourse with the continent, and the claims upon the entire kingdom of France, which devolved upon Edward III. in right of his mother, opening that intercourse still wider, laid a foundation for almost continual wars, and gave so bright a glow to the military spirit of England as to dazzle the eyes of all Europe. When the prosecution of these claims was at any time remitted, the great struggles with the crown, the civil wars of York and Lancaster, kept up the national attention to arms; and when these principal causes were quiescent, the inroads from Scotland, the insurrections of the Welch, or the troubles of Ireland, constantly agitating the people, made them ever warlike and alert: these were no seasons to sit down to a luxurious enjoyment of the things the country afforded; they could not hug themselves in the security which the sea presented them; strong continental connections had broken their insularity of situation; inattention to the schemes of foreign courts was shaken off; the want of a due information, which want had left the politics of England, during the Saxon period, in a state of gross imperfection, was supplied; and these will, I hope, be admitted as sufficient reasons why England through these ages could not, by yielding to the circumstances of soil and situation, sink into the soft down of sloth and luxury; she was then a body healthy and athletic from temperance and exercise, by the absence of which invigorating causes, she became in succeeding ages languid, swollen, unwieldy, and distempered.

' The

4 The civil wars of York and Lancaster had so called home the attention of the English, that Lewis XI. seized the opportunity of rendering their re-establishment in France impracticable for the future, for the duke of Burgundy was destroyed; they began to feel the influence of trade however remote, and although Henry VII. was a narrow-minded, contemptible, avaricious tyrant, yet not a spark of their former spirit could his oppressions strike out of the nation; as to the important change of property occasioned by laws enacted in his reign, it could not as yet have operated to the humiliation of the nobles, for Oxford dismissed his retainers through fear of Henry, not through want of means to support them; and if the commons had acquired property, it did not add to their resolution, for they endured the unwarrantable exactions of Dudley and Empson with a patience unexampled in former reigns: in short, so soon as peace, together with that commercial turn which Europe had then taken, had furnished the English with the means of indulgence and ease, they would not run the hazard of immediately losing them, by attempting to give a check to this first of the Tudor race; nor did the despotism of this family arise from any extraordinary courage in them, but from the abject submission of the people: and here impartiality must allow, that although the former active periods had kept up the courage of the English, yet did all their domestic contention spring from implicit obedience to their great barons before the battle of Evesham, or from attachment to particular branches of the reigning family, until the distinction was lost in the union of the contending houses; it never arose from a just notion of civil liberty, which hath not the aggrandizement of barons, the pretensions of particular families to a crown, for its concern, as the above causes being removed, we see them tamely submitting to Henry VIII. the most bloody and brutal tyrant that ever deformed the annals of a nation; we cannot point out one well regulated effort in favour of liberty through the long course of his reign; the religious prejudices of a bigotted nation given up, the property of the church peaceably transferred to the crown and to a part of the laity, the fortresses of superstition entirely dismantled under him and his successor; and to prove that the nation did not submit from conviction, we have only to observe that what was done in his and Edward's reign was immediately reversed, with the like consent of the people, in the reign of Mary, whose gloomy and horrid cruelties were suffered until death removed her: these all are marks not of national patience but of national insensibility. As to Elizabeth, her greatest admirers must allow her to be no better than a sensible despot; she

she had occasion for the affection of her people, and she had the address to cajole them; but it is evident from what they had borne from her predecessors, that if she had Philip for her friend, instead of his being her enemy, she might not only have offended, but oppressed them with impunity: as to the boasted glories of her reign, it is true she preserved the peace of England, but what figure would she have made, if she had a principal part to maintain upon the continent, like some of our former monarchs? had she their extensive dominions in France to preserve? she who in the distracted state of the French monarchy, after the death of Henry II. had not even the spirit of making the smallest effort for the recovery of Calais.'

The author next briefly considers the state of the English spirit under the Stuart race, and whether it appeared to advantage in the important event of the Revolution. In surveying these periods of our history, he entertains no high opinion of any opposition to arbitrary government that is not immediately supported by an insurrection of the people. For a nation to submit to despotism rather than have recourse to arms in defence of their liberties, would certainly argue a degree of the most contemptible pusillanimity; but when we reflect on the inconveniencies and horrors unavoidably attending a civil war, the resort to that expedient can never be justified, except upon the principle of necessity, and after every other means of preserving the constitution has been tried.

The author's opinion of the English in the present age, will appear from the following passage.

'It being clear that the bravery of such a nation as ours is inversely as the power which the enervating effects of soil and situation is permitted to exercise over its people, it is no less certain that the bravery of such a nation may degenerate into rank cowardice: to say the English are fallen so low would be unjust, and to deny that they are much beneath the same key of real courage, at which they formerly were, would be truly ridiculous. The lustre of the late war will be urged to the contrary; but there are many reasons why the entire credit of the war should not be given to English bravery. Its success was, in a great measure, owing to the extraordinary expence attending it, by which it was so perfectly served in every quarter of the globe; it was owing to the extensive genius of the man who planned its operations; it was owing to the great numbers of Germans, of Scotch, of Irish, and of Americans, who served in our fleets and armies, paid indeed by English money, but English money is neither English strength nor courage: if we add to these considerations the wretched incapacity of the French ministry, under the direction

of a weak woman, the war, on their side, strangled in its birth by the want of an immediate conjunction of the houses of Bourbon, the one disabled before the other moved, which could then do little more than give additional splendor to the triumphs of Britain; these things considered, from the uncommon lustre of the war we speak of, a superior courage of the present English, to their courage at former periods, cannot by any means be inferred, nor even an equality.'

This writer inveighs with particular severity against the prevailing manners of the nobility and gentry in this country, whom he describes as totally immersed in luxury and dissipation, which he also observes are every day extending their pernicious influence among the people in general. In this degenerate state, he appears to be of opinion, that the yet untainted virtue of the Scots is the best security which the inhabitants of England at present enjoy for the continuance of public liberty. That the people in the north part of the island are as yet less corrupted by luxury than their southern neighbours, we believe will be generally admitted; but it is certain that the contagion makes perceptible progress among the former; and we should be sorry to think that the English spirit were so much degenerated, as to be entirely dependent for protection upon the inhabitants of any part of the united kingdom. The valour and activity displayed in the last war, by the English as well as the Scots, appears to afford no real ground for such an invidious conclusion as is drawn by the author upon this subject.

In these Observations we meet with several political remarks, which are ingenious and just; and though the author is sometimes too precipitate in recommending immediate recourse to the most violent measures on every infringement of liberty, he seems to be actuated by a laudable attachment to the principles and safety of the constitution.

IV. *The Seaman's Medical Instructor, in a Course of Lectures on Accidents and Diseases incident to Seamen in the various Climates of the World.* By N. D. Falck, M. D. 8vo. 4s. boards. Dilly.

A Practical treatise on the diseases incident at sea, delivered in so plain a manner as to be intelligible to those who are unacquainted with physic, must be a work equally acceptable and useful to many in the sea-faring life; and the author of these lectures seems to have rendered them, as much as could be expected, suitable for that purpose.

In the first lecture Dr. Falck delivers an account of the structure of the human body, upon the supposition that some know-

ledge of this subject is requisite for understanding the nature of diseases, and administering remedies more successfully. We entirely agree with him in opinion respecting the importance of anatomy; but we do not imagine that much advantage can be derived from a verbal description of our corporeal frame. If not much instruction, the readers may, however, reap amusement from this introductory discourse.

In the second lecture, the author delivers observations on the pulse, with the effects and operation of bleeding, and the plan of a medicinal box, in which he has very properly recommended the most useful and effectual medicines.

The third lecture treats of accidents, and the proper method of cure; such as wounds, bruises, fractures, &c. In this lecture the author makes the following pertinent remarks on the different ways in which people suffer by drowning, previous to his account of the method of attempting their recovery.

‘ A man who unfortunately falls over board, and is taken up for drowned (immediately) should not be given up for lost. As this is a circumstance of the utmost consequence to a seafaring man, I shall think my time well rewarded in explaining the method of recovery contributing to the preserving the life of my fellow-creature.

‘ There are different ways of drowning; and according to the nature of the accident, the probability of recovery is founded.

‘ A man, before he comes into the water, may receive an unlucky blow, that will not only stun him, but make him expire his breath (which is generally the case in high falls) as before observed. In this case his senses are benumbed, and by the inspiration apt to draw in a quantity of water into his lungs instead of air; thence, both from the blow, and from the total stoppage of respiration, he may have some blood vessels burst, both in the lungs and in the brains, whereby he is instantly irrecoverably dead, beyond all hopes. In this case it may happen, that either way, separately, is enough to kill him.

‘ A man may also, in the very act of drowning, swallow a prodigious quantity of water; not only filling his stomach and intestines, but thence forcibly infuse the water into the lacteals, thereby overload them, and force it into the blood vessels that they burst. The great quantity of cold water will also be apt to chill the stomach and intestines; thereby destroy the sensibility, and prevent them from performing the peristaltic motion; and by the universal consent, destroy the whole nervous system, which is the spring of life, that promotes the
blood

blood to circulation, and consequently stops the animal motion, and life itself.

‘ But the most common way of drowning is by suffocation; namely, a sudden constriction of the respirative organs; whereby the supply of the air is cut off, and consequently the circulation of the blood must stop. This is verified by the frequent instances we have of people drowned, who have scarce any water, either in their bellies or in their lungs.

‘ To understand this properly, we must first observe, that a continual supply of fresh air is requisite for the circulation of the blood; partly and principally for its motion, and partly from the nourishment the blood actually receives from the air. In the next place, we must also consider, that the lungs, appropriated barely for respiration, are so very delicate in the irritability throughout the larynx, aspera, bronchea, and vesicles themselves, that the least heterogeneous particle stimulates them to a convulsive expulsion, of what seems obnoxious to them, and thence excites a cough. But, when the parts are too irritating, the lungs are excited to a universal constriction, and occasions strangling. This we find is the case when in drinking or swallowing our aliment, that the least morsel happens by mischance coming the wrong way (as it is called) that is, into the larynx, occasions a heavy cough, or even a suffocation; to obviate which, nature has formed the epiglottis in the larynx, like a flap, that opens in respiration, but is always shut in the act of deglutition, except by some mischance or other, that it becomes lame, and unable to do its office.

‘ These circumstances considered, we shall not only be able to account for the act of drowning, but discover the principles that furnishes us with probabilities of restoring life again.

‘ I have mentioned three kinds of drowning that at present occurs to my memory; and unless that some blood vessels, either in the lungs or in the brains, or in some other principal viscera are burst; or, that the lungs are so much filled with water, as to be unable to recover their respirative functions again, (which is seldom the case) or, that the whole nervous system has received a universal paralytic shock by the chill of the water in the stomach, so as to be robbed of its irritability, either way of drowning is recoverable. For the whole mystery consists, in setting the animal automaton or clock work in motion again; to stimulate the nerves to their sensation; to set the heart a pumping; and the lungs, in order to push forward the fluids, in respiration.’

The fourth lecture treats of external diseases, and their cure; the fifth of fevers and inflammatory diseases; and the sixth, which concludes the volume, of the various internal diseases.

Though this treatise is professedly calculated for the use of those who are unacquainted with the medical science, to whom it may prove very advantageous, it is not below the notice either of navy surgeons or practitioners at land.

V. *The Lives of those eminent Antiquaries, Elias Ashmole, Esq. and Mr. William Lilly, written by themselves; containing, first, William Lilly's History of his Life and Times, with Notes by Mr. Ashmole: secondly, Lilly's Life and Death of Charles the First: and lastly, the Life of Elias Ashmole, Esq. by Way of Diary; with several occasional Letters by Charles Burman, Esq.* 8vo. 6s. Davies.

LORD Corke, in one of his letters from Italy, published by Mr. Duncombe, informs us, that one Martin Mairacca, an Italian knight, not willing to trust to the discretion of his heirs, erected a monument to himself, during his lifetime, in the cathedral church of Parma, with this inscription:

Jo. Martinus Mairacca,
J. V. Doctor et Eques, nolens discretioni,
Hæredum stare, vivus posuit*.

The two 'eminent antiquaries,' whose productions are now before us, seem to have had the like suspicions, with respect to the discretion of posterity, and have therefore wisely chosen to be their own biographers.

There is the appearance of honest and unaffected simplicity in the memoirs of William Lilly. He addresses them to his friend Elias Ashmole, and thus apologizes for his prolixity.—'Worthy Sir, I take much delight to recount unto you even all and every circumstance of my life, whether good, moderate, or evil: *Deo gloria.*'—A man must be a consummate hypocrite, who can talk of the praise and glory of God, while he is telling a lie.

Among other particulars he informs us, that he was born at Diseworth, in Leicestershire, in the year 1602; that his ancestors had continued in that town many ages as yeomen;

* The editor of Lord Corke's Letters calls Martin "an honest man, doctor, and knight," imagining that J. V. stand for Justus Vir. But surely J. V. Doctor signify Juris Utriusque Doctor, doctor of laws. The editor's interpretation makes Martin a more ostentatious fool than he really was. Let. XIV. p. 174.

that

that he was taught Latin and Greek at a school at Ashby de la Zouch; that in his fourteenth year he had like to have had his right eye beaten out by one of his play-fellows; that about two years afterwards he was exceedingly troubled in his dreams concerning his salvation and damnation, and also concerning the safety and destruction of his father and mother, frequently spending his nights in praying, weeping, and mourning; that when he was about eighteen, he came to London, and lived in the capacity of a servant with one Gilbert Wright, master of the Salter's company; and seven years afterwards married his widow, with whom he lived very happily about six years.

He then informs us, how he came to study astrology; and gives us some account of the astrologers of that time, Dr. Forman, — Evans, Alexander Hart, Capt. Bubb, Dr. Jeffry Neve, William Poole, John Booker, Nicholas Fiske, &c.

From these digressions he returns to the story of his own life; gives us an account of his marrying a second, and afterwards a third wife; of his purchasing the moiety of thirteen houses in the Strand; of his progress in the art of astrology; of his casting nativities, resolving questions of theft, love, marriage, and the like.

In this part of his memoirs, he mentions the publication of his various works, viz. *Merlinus Anglicus, jun. Supernatural Sight, The White King's Prophecy, The Prophetical Merlin, The Starry Messenger, Nativities in several Books, The Christian Astrology, The World's Catastrophe, Trihemius of the Government of the World by the presiding Angels, A Treatise of Three Suns seen in 1647, Annus Tenebrosus, Monarchy or No Monarchy, with some Hieroglyphics; and many other pieces in the astrological way.*

In 1665, when the plague was in London, he quitted the town entirely, and settled with his wife and family at Hersham, in the parish of Walton upon Thames, where he practised physic with good success. His licence from the archbishop of Canterbury bears date Oct. 8, 1670.

Mr. Lilly continues his narrative no farther than the year 1666. What follows is a very short account of his charity to his poor neighbours, of his last illness, of his death, which happened in 1681, and his interment in the church of Walton, where a black marble was placed over his grave by his friend Elias Ashmole.

To these memoirs are subjoined his *Observations upon the Life and Death of king Charles I.*

In several places of his memoirs he speaks with respect and compassion of this unfortunate prince. 'When I heard, says he, Bradshaw the judge say to his majesty, "Sir, instead of

answering the court, you interrogate their power, which becomes not one in your condition:" these words pierced my heart and soul, to hear a subject thus audaciously to reprehend his sovereign, who ever and anon replied with great magnanimity and prudence."—"As to the parliament, it grew, says he, odious unto all good men *; the members thereof became insufferable in their pride, covetousness, self-ends, laziness, minding nothing but how to enrich themselves. Much heart-burning now arose betwixt the Presbyterian and Independant, the latter siding with the army, betwixt whose two judgments there was no medium. Now came up, or first appeared, that monstrous people called Ranters: and many other novel opinions, in themselves heretical and scandalous, were countenanced by members of parliament, many whereof were of the same judgment. Justice was neglected, vice countenanced, and all care of the common good laid aside. Every judgment almost groaned under the heavy burthen they then suffered; the army neglected; the city of London scorned; the ministry, especially those who were orthodox and serious, honest or virtuous, had no countenance; my soul began to loath the very name of a parliament, or parliament-men. There yet remained in the house very able, judicious, and worthy patriots; but they, by their silence, only served themselves: all was carried on by a rabble of dunces, who being the greater number, voted what seemed best to their nonintelligent fancies.'

From these passages it appears, that Lilly was no enemy to his sovereign, no creature of the parliament, no violent or unreasonable bigot to either party; we shall therefore extract some of his general observations relative to the character of king Charles.

'Favourites he had three; Buckingham stabbed to death; William Laud, and Thomas earl of Strafford, both beheaded. Bishops and clergymen, whom he most favoured, and wholly advanced, and occasionally ruined, he lived to see their bishopricks sold, the bishops themselves scorned, and all the whole clergy of his party and opinion quite undone.

'The English noblemen he cared not much for, but only to serve his own turns by them: yet such as had the unhappiness to adventure their lives and fortunes for him, he lived to see them and their families ruined, only for his sake. Pity it is many of them had not served a more fortunate master, and one more grateful.

'The Scots, his countrymen, on whom he bestowed so many favours, he lived to see them in arms against himself;

* About the year 1651.

to sell him for more money than the Jews did Christ, and themselves to be handsomely routed, and sold for knaves and slaves. They made their best market of him at all times, changing their affection with his fortune.

‘ The old prince of Orange he almost beggared, and yet to no purpose, the parliament one time or other getting all arms and ammunition which ever came over unto him. It is confidently averred, if the king had become absolute here in England, Orange had been king, &c.

‘ The city of London, which he had so sore oppressed and slighted, he lived to see thousands of them in arms against him; and they to thrive, and himself consume unto nothing. The parliament, which he so abhorred, and formerly scorned, he lived to know was superior unto him; and the scorns and slights he had used formerly to Elliot, and others, he saw now returned upon himself in folio.

‘ With Spain he had no perfect correspondency, since his being there; less after he suffered their fleet to perish in his havens; least of all, after he received an ambassador from Portugal; the Spaniard ever upbraiding him with falshood, and breach of promise. Indeed, the nativities of both kings were very contrary.

‘ With France he had no good amity; the Protestants there abhorring his legerdemain and treachery unto Rochelle; the Papists as little loving or trusting him, for some hard measure offered unto those of their religion in England. He cunningly would labour to please all, but in effect gave satisfaction to none.

‘ Denmark could not endure him; sent him little or no assistance, if any at all: besides, the old king suspected another matter; and made a query in his drink.

‘ The Swede extremely complained of him for nonperformance of some secret contract betwixt them, and uttered high words against him.

‘ The Protestant princes of Germany loathed his very name, &c.

‘ The Portugal king and he had little to do; yet in one of his own letters to the queen, though he acknowledges the Portugal's courtesy unto him, yet saith, that he would give him an answer unto a thing of concernment that should signify nothing.

‘ The Hollanders being only courteous for their own ends, and as far as his money would extend, furnished him with arms at such rates as a Turk might have had them elsewhere: but they neither loved or cared for him in his prosperity, or pitied him in his adversity; which occasioned these words to

drop from him, "If he ere came to his throne, he would make Hans Butter-box know, he should pay well for his fishing, and satisfy for old knaveries," &c.

'In conclusion. He was generally unfortunate in the world, in the esteem both of friends and enemies: his friends exclaim on his breach of faith; his enemies would say, he could never be fast enough bound. He was more lamented as he was a king, than for any affection had unto his person as a man.

'He had several opportunities offered him for his restoring. First, by several treaties, all ending in smoke, by his own perverseness. By several opportunities and victories which he prosecuted not. First, when Bristol was cowardly surrendered by Fines: had he then come unto London, all had been his own; but loitering to no purpose at Gloucester, he was presently after well banged by Essex.

'When in the west, viz. Cornwall, he worsted Essex: had he then immediately hastened to London, his army had been without doubt masters of that city; for Manchester was none of his enemy at that time, though he was general of the associated counties.

'Or had he, ere the Scots came into England, commanded Newcastle to have marched southward for London, he could not have missed obtaining the city, and then the work had been ended.

'Or when in 1645, he had taken Leicester, if then he had speedily marched for London, I know not who could have resisted him: but his camp was so overcharged with plunder and Irish whores, there was no marching.'

'—Many have curiously enquired who it was that cut off his head: I have no permission to speak of such things; only thus much I say, he that did it, is as valiant and resolute a man as lives, and one of a competent fortune*.

The foregoing Memoirs, and Observations of Mr. Lilly on the life and death of king Charles, though they are not to be ranked in the higher classes of historical compositions, are well worth reading, as they contain several anecdotes, connected with affairs of state, and many particulars of a more private nature, which are not to be found in any other place.

Though Mr. Lilly relates many stories concerning the effects of his favourite art, the appearance of angels, demons, and the like, for which we are by no means 'persuaded to take his word,' yet in the main we allow the propriety of this remark by the editor:

* Lilly, in the Memoirs of his Life, asserts, that it was lieutenant colonel Joyce.

* With respect to the science, which Lilly professed, of calculating nativities, casting figures, the prediction of events, and other appendages of astrology, he would fain make us think, that he was a very solemn and serious believer. Indèed such is the manner of telling his story, that sometimes the reader may possibly be induced to suppose Lilly rather an enthusiast than an impostor. He relates many anecdotes of the pretenders to foretel events, raise spirits, and other impostures, with such seeming candor, and with such an artless simplicity of style, that we are almost persuaded to take his word, when he protests such an inviolable respect to truth and sincerity.'

The Memoirs of Elias Ashmole, esq. were written by himself by way of diary. The copy, from which they are published, is in the hand-writing of Dr. Plott, late professor of chemistry, chief keeper of the Ashmolean Museum in the university of Oxford, and secretary of the Royal Society; and was by him transcribed for the use of a near relation of Mr. Ashmole's, a private gentleman in Staffordshire, who has been pleased to think they may be acceptable to the world for their exactness and singularity.

We shall not enlarge this article by a relation of the principal occurrences of Mr. Ashmole's life. The reader may find them in the Continuation of Mr. Collier's Supplement to the Great Historical Dictionary, 'partly extracted from these materials by the celebrated Mr. Edward Llwyd, superior beadle of divinity in the university of Oxford.'

As this 'eminent antiquary' appears to have recorded almost every occurrence of his life, the reader will find some useful, and many trivial articles of information in this diary. The following, we presume, are of the latter sort.

* 1656. April 20, 5 h. post merid. I bruised my great toe with the fall of a great form.

* Sept. 22, I fell ill of the tooth-ach, which continued three days.

* 1670. July 5, I fell ill of a surfeit; but thanks be to God I recovered the next day.

* 1674. Dec. 18, Mr. Lilly fell sick, and was let blood in the left foot, a little above the ancle: new moon the day before, and the sun eclipsed.

* 1675. My wife, in getting up of her horse near Farnham-castle, fell down, and hurt the hinder part of her hand and left shoulder.

* Nov. 7, Great pain in my farther tooth, on the left side of my upper jaw, which continued three or four days.

* 1676.

' 1676. Aug. 8, I fell ill of a looseness, and had above twenty stools.

' 1678. Sept. 28, I took my purging pills.

' Sept. 29, I bled with leeches.

1681. April 11, I took early in the morning a good dose of elixir, and hung three spiders about my neck, and they drove my ague away—*Deo gratias*.

' 1682. May 22, This night scratching the right side of my buttocks, above the fundament, thence proceeded a violent sharp humour.

' 1686. Mar. 26, This night I pissed so much, that I feared a diabetes, notwithstanding I had kept myself very temperate all the spring time.'

From these, and other memorandums of the like nature, we are inclined, with all due deference to his virtues, to look upon Elias Ashmole, esq. as a respectable old woman.

VI. *The Poetical Works of the late William Dunkin, D. D. to which are added, his Epistles, &c. to the late Earl of Chesterfield. 2 Vols. 4to. 1l. 1s. sewed. Becket.*

THE author of these poems, we are informed, attracted very early in life the notice of Dr. Swift, who is said to have presaged, from some of his productions, that he would, one day, make an eminent figure in the poetical world. The same opinion of his talents seems to have been entertained likewise by the late earl of Chesterfield. This nobleman, when lord lieutenant of Ireland, was so much pleased with some of Dr. Dunkin's compositions, that voluntarily becoming his patron, he bestowed on him the valuable rectory of Inniskilling, and honoured him ever after with distinguished marks of his friendship. What were the particular pieces which procured the author the esteem of those discerning judges of literary merit, we are not told; but these volumes contain such proofs of poetical genius as fully justify the prediction of the celebrated dean of St. Patrick, and place the favour of lord Chesterfield in the most honourable and disinterested light.

The first poem in this collection is entitled, *The Art of Gate-Passing, or the Murphæid*, consisting of two books, which are written both in Latin and English. We shall present our readers with an extract from the beginning of the poem, in each language.

' En! ego musarum blando percussus amore,
Pieriis haud ante modis vulgata per orbem
Aggredior, non magna quidem, sed digna poeta,
Quem pauci accingunt anni, nec fata tulerunt

In

In medium, famæ cupidum, quem diya bilinguis
Ignoravit adhuc, luctantem in limine primo.

‘ Tu vero, pennis quem jam plaudentibus effert,
Dexter ades, musæque vias ostende vaganti:
Egregios inter vates memorandus, et ipse
Avia pieridum peragras umbrosa piarum,
Castas propter aquas Phœbi secreta recludens:
Tu mihi nunc aures ne mites abnue, Thompson,
Vestra nec erubuit quondam festiva Thalia
Stramineas cecinisse casas et sordida rura,
Mendicosque tori genialia vincla petentes,
Hanc oculis captam, labefactum cruribus illum:
Hos melior fortuna manet per lubrica rerum,
Quorum culta manu vestra splendet egestas,
Alternique vigent æternis versibus ignes.

‘ Tuque adeo, cui rara fides, et pectoris ardor
Ingenui, facilisque decor; sed nescia flecti
Mens patria pietate potens, mihi candidus adsis,
A—— comes: tecum quippe impiger ausim
Ignotas tentare vias, tecum ire per atras
Serpentum latebras, ac tristia lustra ferarum.’

‘ I feel the Muses, and confess their charms;
A gentle flame my panting bosom warms:
No common subject claims the tuneful strings,
Such as each trifling poetaster sings:
Slight is the theme: but yet a theme so rare
Is not unworthy of a poet's care,
Who yet a novice to the double tongue
Of public fame, with youthful ardour stung,
And unacquainted with the craggy way,
Explores Parnassus in his first essay.

‘ Thompson, auspicious bard, whose laurel'd name
Mounts on the pinions of establish'd fame,
O! smile propitious on the lines I write,
Assist my genius, and direct my flight.
Though calmly wand'ring through sequester'd shades,
Of old frequented by the Thespian maids,
By chrystal fountains you sublimely hail
The god of numbers, and his rites reveal;
Yet will you not discourage, nor refuse
Indulgent audience to the modest muse.
In Doric dress thy sportive muse, I ween,
With youthful vigour gambol'd on the green,
Nor whilom blush'd to sing the sordid plains
And lowly cottages of rural swains:
The begging pair, that languish'd long to prove
The sacred pleasures of connubial love,
The crippled bride-groom and his eyeless bride,
In Hymen's band's indissolubly ty'd,
Whose poverty with matchless glory shines,
Deck'd by the graces of thy lovely lines.
Above the frowns of fickle fortune reign,
And live, and love for ever in thy strain.

‘ And thou, whose bosom, which no changes knows,
With friendly faith and inbred honour glows,

Whose

Whose grace is easy, but whose loyal heart
Is fix'd for ever to the patriot part,
Come, honest A——, and bring along
Thy truth and candour, to protect my song.
The willing muse, with A—— her guide,
Would boldly rove through devious paths untry'd,
With him explore, where nature never smil'd,
The dens of serpents and the savage wild.

The next poem is of great length, divided into four books, and written also in Latin and English; the title being *Speculum Poeticum*, or the Poetical Mirror. It was originally intended as an imitation of Philips's poem of the *Splendid Shilling*, and the author had resolved to call it the *Argureid*, but afterwards changed this name for one more suitable to the subject. As the English version of this poem is in blank verse, we shall likewise select a specimen of the author's performance in that species of composition. For the satisfaction of our readers we also prefix the Latin translation.

‘Magnus in angusto labor est, nova carmina pango,
Verba sequens aliena meis, gazamque Britanniam
Vertere in Ausonium, Phœboque sacrare per orbem
Accingor. Tu primus ades, tuque annue cœptis,
O decus Aonidum, Stanhope sanguinis hæres
Inclute, quem gremio nutrici Pallas alumnum
In patriæ spem fida tulit, Divæque decentes
Virtuti dum lingua fuit; cui gratia fandi
Cecropiique sales! Augustæ sperne beatas
Urbis opes, procerumque epulas, et leniter audi
Pierides, doctamque sitim, esuriemque canoram,
Et mecum arcanos jam nunc ascende recessus.
Ne tamen ipse tibi moveat fastidia vates
Æris inops, cassusque penu, si plena fidei
Reddiderit speculo rerum simulachra, fluentes
Deliciis epulas variis, nulloque lepore
Conditas, tardosque viris ducentia somnos
Pocula, musarum vestrique haud conscia Phœbi.

‘At mox ingenii pennis fugientibus udam
Spernet humum, cœtusque humiles, et, concitus æstro
Nobiliore Dei, perstringet carmine victor
Gesta ducum, heroasque suis interferet astris.

‘Felix, qui curis, felix, qui litibus atris
Ætatem semotus agit, lautumque crumena
Contexta solidum, seu pelle tuetur ovina!
Non illum spes alma, fides non deserit audax,
Non trepidum formido premit, raptoris adunci
Nec facies inopina ferit. Non edita voce
Ostrea viva vorax bibit auribus, invia labris,
Ambrosiæve sagax nequicquam naribus auras
Artocrex captat, nec Zythi gaudia sicco
Deperit oré miser: quoties quin humida tristes
Nox umbris terras operit, stipatus amicis
Flectit ad insignem vestigia læta tabernam,
Festivolque choros, liquidosque instaurat honores.’

‘Great

' Great is my toil, though narrow be my theme,
 New strains I sing, through devious paths explore
 Harmonious treasure, studious to refine,
 To stamp the British into Latian coin,
 And consecrate it to the God of Day
 Wide o'er the globe. Thou first attend, and thou
 Inspire my lays, O glory of the Nine,
 Accomplish'd Stanhope, of illustrious blood,
 Whom faithful Pallas in her genial breast
 Divinely cherish'd, and the Graces form'd,
 Thy country's hope! whose dignity might swell
 The Roman senate, while her voice was free,
 The voice of virtue; thou with elegance
 And Attic wit adorn'd, despise the wealth
 Of proud Augusta, fly the costly feasts
 Of pamper'd nobles, and indulgent hear
 The plaintive Muses; hear their letter'd thirst
 And tuneful hunger, and with me ascend
 The mystic chambers of their high retreats,
 Nor let the poet, void of current cash,
 And vital food, provoke thy pure disdain,
 If he present, as in a faithful glass,
 The round resemblance of material things,
 Grotesque and rude, profuse luxuriant scenes,
 Dishes, unseason'd with delicious wit,
 And flowing goblets, which incline the guests
 To lazy naps, unconscious of the Nine,
 And active God, that animates thy breast.

' But soon, the Muse, on soaring pinions borne,
 Shall spurn inglorious earth, the groveling crowd
 And, stung with Pæan's nobler heat, display
 The deeds of chiefs triumphant, and insert
 Heroic souls among their natal stars.

' Happy the man, who, void of cares and strife,
 In silken, or in leathern purse retains
 A splendid shilling! him nor bounteous hope,
 Nor daring faith deserts: no guilty fear
 Pursues him trembling, nor the Gorgon face
 Of hookful bailiff unexpected smites.
 Not he voracious with insatiate ears
 Ingulphs new oysters from the distant cry
 Alive! Alive! impervious to his lips,
 Nor with sagacious nostril snuffs in vain
 The fumes ambrosial of hot mutton-pies,
 Nor melancholy sighs for chearful ale
 With arid lips; but when the beldam night
 With sable mantle overspreads the face
 Of earth, day-widow'd, usher'd with his friends
 To club-frequented tipling-house he shapes
 His joyful steps, and carolling renews
 The liquid honours of the social board.

The succeeding poem, which is entitled Faulkener's Nati-
 vity, is also of considerable length, and affords no less evi-
 dence of the author's happy talent for giving to whatever sub-
 ject he pleases an epic dignity, than of his great accomplish-
 ment

ment in the learned languages, and his powers of versification. It is written in Greek, Latin, and English, the latter of which versions is both in blank verse and rhyme. The classical elegance of this poem would not have permitted us to withhold from our readers a short extract, were we not restrained by the consideration of leaving room for other performances.

These are followed by two others in Latin and English, and a congratulatory Latin poem on the royal marriage, which concludes the first volume.

The second volume commences with a humorous poem in three cantos, called the Parson's Revels, which occupies seventy pages, and is succeeded by a great number of miscellaneous English poems, with a few Latin intermixed. That our readers may be enabled to form some idea of Dr. Dunkin's disposition of mind, as well as of his poetry, we shall lay before them his address to himself.

' Ambition paying court to knaves,
And fools, to lord it over slaves,
Like creeping ivy, which would rise
From humble earth to brave the skies,
Yet in its progress often falls
With ruinous and rotten walls,
Never annoy'd my youthful years
With sanguine hopes, or abject fears :
Yet often have I wish'd to see
My days from low dependance free.

' Indulgent Providence at last,
In pity to my labours past,
Preferr'd my suit in sending o'er
Accomplish'd St-nh-pe to our shore ;
Supreme of all the tuneful throng,
He listen'd to my simple song,
He listen'd, and approv'd—but left
The song, like many more deceas'd,
Should not survive, though he might give
Applause, he bade its author live.
Remov'd from Dublin's clouded air
To breathe a purer atmosphere,
His bard on antient Erne's banks
To Heav'n and him returns his thanks.

' He there sequester'd from the crowd,
And independent from the proud,
Imprints the principles of truth,
And honour on the minds of youth.
If haply his assiduous toil
May benefit his native soil,
Peopling with patriots good and wise,
The venal world, from which he flies,
He triumphs there compos'd to dwell
With calm contentment in a cell,
Nor once inveighs against the fates,
That robb'd his birth of three estates.'

The

The author's temper, no less than the luxuriance of his fancy, appears also from a piece in this volume, entitled
The Poet's Prayer.

' If e'er in thy sight I found favour, Apollo,
Defend me from all the disasters, which follow :
From the knaves, and the fools, and the fops of the time,
From the drudges in prose, and the triflers in rhyme :
From the patch-work, and toils of the royal sack-bibber,
Those dead birth-day odes, and the farces of Cibber :
From servile attendance on men in high places,
Their worships, and honours, and lordships, and graces :
From long dedications to patrons unworthy,
Who hear, and receive, but will do nothing for thee :
From being caress'd, to be left in the lurch,
The tool of a party, in state, or in church ;
From dull thinking blockheads, as sober as Turks,
And petulant bards, who repeat their own works ;
From all the gay things of a drawing-room show,
The sight of a belle, and the smell of a beau :
From busy back-biters, and tatlers, and carpers,
And scurvy acquaintance with fidlers and sharpers :
From old politicians, and coffee-house lectures,
The dreams of a chymist, and schemes of projectors :
From the fears of a jail, and the hopes of a pension,
The tricks of a gamester, and oaths of an ensign :
From shallow free-thinkers, in taverns disputing,
Nor ever confuted, nor ever confuting ;
From the constant good fare of another man's board,
My lady's broad hints, and the jests of my lord ;
From hearing old chymists prelecting *de oleo*,
And reading of Dutch commentators in folio ;
From waiting, like Gay, whole years at Whitehall ;
From the pride of great wits, and the envy of small ;
From very fine ladies with very fine incomes,
Which they finely lay out on fine toys, and fine trincums ;
From the pranks of ridottoes, and court-masquerades,
The snares of young jilts, and the spite of old maids ;
From a saucy dull stage, and submitting to share
In an empty third night with a beggarly play'r ;
From Curl, and such printers, as would have me curst
To write second parts, let who will write the first ;
From all pious patriots, who would, to their best,
Put on a new tax, and take off an old test ;
From the faith of informers, the fangs of the law,
And the great rogues, who keep all the lesser in awe ;
From a poor country-cure, that living interment,
With a wife, and no prospect of any preferment ;
From scribbling for hire, when my credit is sunk,
To buy a new coat, and to line an old trunk ;
From 'squires, who divert us with jokes at their tables,
Of hounds in their kennels, and nags in their stables ;
From the nobles and commons, who bound in strict league are
To subscribe for no book, yet subscribe to Heidegger ;
From the cant of fanatics, the jargon of schools,
The censures of wise men, and praises of fools ;

From

From critics, who never read Latin, or Greek,
 And pedants, who boast they read both all the week;
 From borrowing wit, to repay it like Budget,
 Or lending, like Pope, to be paid by a cudgel.
 If ever thou didst, or wilt ever befriend me,
 From these, and such evils, Apollo, defend me;
 And let me be rather but honest with no-wit,
 Than a noisy, nonsensical, half-witted poet.'

From the various poems with which we are presented in these two volumes, the genius of the author is conspicuous. To a fertile invention he added the descriptive talents which are essential to the most sublime kind of poetry; and the elegance of his compositions in Greek and Latin, is such as seldom has been equalled by modern writers.

VII. *The Earl of Douglas, an English Story. From the French of the Countess D'Anois. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Baldwin.*

THE incidents in this novel are represented as happening in the reign of Henry VIII. The earl of Warwick, whom motives of self-preservation induce to quit England, leaves behind him his lady, and an infant daughter named Julia, who, at the request of lady Warwick, who dies soon after the departure of her lord, is received into the family of the earl and countess of Douglas, then residing in this country, and reputed to be their own child. A mutual attachment soon commences between Julia and Hyppolitus, son to the earl of Douglas, which becomes so violent when they have nearly reached their sixteenth year, that the thoughts of being brother and sister rendered them perfectly unhappy, and placed an eternal bar against the gratification of their wishes. To their great joy they are afterwards undeceived with respect to the supposed relation in which they stood to each other; but the prospect of happiness from this discovery unfortunately proves of short duration. For lord and lady Douglas observing the passion which subsisted between the young lovers, determined to oppose their union, and had for some time entertained the design of marrying Hyppolitus to a daughter of the earl of Argyle, an heiress of great fortune. Apprehending however that all their vigilance and authority would prove insufficient for preventing Hyppolitus and Julia from entering into the matrimonial alliance, unless the intercourse between them could be broke off, they resolved to send their son abroad a few years; imagining that his love for Julia might be obliterated by absence, and that in the mean time she might be married to the earl of Bedford, who was her suitor. Hyppolitus accordingly is equipped for his travels, but instead of embark-

embarking for the continent, as imagined by his father and mother, he resides privately with the earl of Suffolk, his friend, for the sake of holding secret interviews with his beloved Julia, whom he visits in the night, by a passage which led from the garden into her chamber. By an extraordinary incident, however, this correspondence becomes known to the earl of Douglas, who is greatly enraged at the discovery, and again dispatches Hyppolitus upon his tour to the Continent, who is now obliged actually to depart.

During the unhappy separation of the lovers, the letters which privately pass between them are intercepted by the earl and countess of Douglas, by whose means fictitious letters are substituted, with the design of betraying Julia into the belief that she no longer possessed the affection of Hyppolitus, and of disposing her to marry the earl of Bedford, thereby to remove the obstacle which stood in the way of completing the intended alliance between their son and the daughter of Argyle. In consequence of this artifice, Julia is persuaded to submit to the marriage with Bedford, in spite of the great aversion she had for him, and the inviolable attachment which she still preserved for her beloved Hyppolitus, notwithstanding his imagined infidelity. The situation of Julia and her husband on this event, presents us with a picture of the wretched state of those who enter into a connubial alliance without mutual affection. We shall lay before our readers the account of this unhappy union.

‘ The fatal day arrived. Julia was dressed in a silver brocade, with roses scattered carelessly over it—her diamonds were set in the most elegant taste, and her fair hair adorned with flowers.—She never appeared so beautiful ! The sweet languor of her countenance ;—the paleness of her complexion, gave a delicacy that rather added to, than diminished the graces of her person. The earl of Bedford could scarce believe this unexpected transition from misery to happiness real ! His joy was extravagant ; but all his transports,—his love, his constancy, made no impression on the heart of Julia. The marriage was celebrated at Buckingham : the ball-room was crowded in the evening with people of the first fashion, who all remarked the deep melancholy of the fair victim ; some attempted to divert her with the sallies of their wit, but her answers were equally short to the gay and the serious part of the company.

‘ The earl had been that morning informed of all that related to the birth of Julia, as it was judged improper he should marry her as the earl of Douglas’s daughter, though he wished that circumstance still to remain a secret to the world. Instead of making their publick appearance at court, the earl of Bed-

ford carried his bride into Berkshire, where he had a castle magnificent enough to be supposed a royal residence, rather than that of a subject.—To the most delightful natural situation was united all the embellishments of art. Its vicinity to the greatest forest in Hampshire, furnished this solitary retreat with magnificent shades of elms and oaks, venerable by their antiquity, though within forty miles of the capital, the interposition of vast woods gave the appearance of a much farther distance, nor were the seats of the nobility, which abounded in this county, so near as to lessen the air of retirement, but dispersed in a manner that added new beauties to the perspective of this charming scene.

‘ Here it was the unhappy Julia accompanied—not the husband of her choice ! She petitioned the countess to favour her with Lucilla’s company ; she readily complied. Who would have seen without compassion, the deep melancholy that preyed on her spirits ? I had no conception, would she say to Lucilla, that my misery could be greater,—that it was possible for me to suffer more than I had suffered.—But alas ! how am I mistaken ! Each day ! each moment ! heaps woe on woe upon my wretched head ! The terrible constraint I am obliged to support in the presence of a husband I can never love ;—the secret reproaches ;—the remorse, their never failing consequence ;—the tender remembrance of a lover too dear !—The desire of performing the task of duty ;—of tearing from the heart an inclination it is now a crime to indulge.—All these sensations are so painful,—so exquisitely alarming,—that I sometimes dread the most horrid effects from my despair ! Accountable only to myself, I at least avoided the shame of blushing for the sentiments of my heart ! What a wretched martyr to these sentiments ! Let it not, my God, be of long duration !

‘ Here, tears burst from her eyes in torrents.—Lucilla sympathized with her, but, great as her inclination was to comfort and support her, all endeavours were ineffectual.

‘ The earl of Bedford, notwithstanding the gratification of his wishes, felt himself sensibly mortified in knowing he was not beloved.—Love, with all its blindness, is quick and penetrating ;—distinguishes with fatal precision the effects of complaisance, from those of preference. Love is prone to flatter,—to impose on itself.—But there is a source of delicate delight which the heart tastes freely of in the exchange of mutual professions of affection ; when one alone is animated, there are many wretched moments that explain the misfortune, though the heart may continue devoted to its object. Such was the state of the earl of Bedford ; and in these moments of disappointment, he was studious to discover who could have
robbed

robbed him of the affection of his wife.—His reflexions did not even lead him to conjecture!—So prudent in her behaviour;—such professed indifference for the world;—educated in retirement;—he was persuaded if she did not love him, that at least she had no prepossession in favour of another! And though the certainty of the former gave him great concern, he felt as great consolation in the belief of the latter. I shall be completely happy in time, said he to one of his intimate friends. Julia is at present insensible; but when her heart is once susceptible of tenderness, I doubt not her endearments will be the result of love, as they now are of principle.

The distress of Hyppolitus on receiving intelligence of this transaction, may easily be imagined. He immediately departs from Italy, accompanied by Leander, a young gentleman of fortune in that country. On their arrival in England, after some extraordinary adventures, they procure access to the earl of Bedford's, in the disguise of pedlars. On this occasion, the tenderness discovered by the countess for her faithful Hyppolitus, so much offends the earl, that he resolves on placing her in a convent in France, and this scheme is soon carried into execution. A series of disasters succeeds, till at last Hyppolitus, who had now come to the title of earl of Douglas, and gone again to the continent in search of his beloved Julia, discovers her in very affecting circumstances. This conjuncture is rendered more surprising by the presence of her father, the earl of Warwick, who was supposed to be dead, and that of the earl of Bedford, who had married a lady in Italy. A prosecution for bigamy is commenced against the latter of these noblemen, which affecting his spirits, produces a fever that soon proves mortal. The impediments to the union of the faithful lovers being removed by this event, they are at length permitted to enjoy the happiness for which, for so many years, they had sighed in vain.

In this Novel the manners are such as correspond to the idea of those times when tilts and tournaments were the fashionable diversions over Europe. *Enlevements*, Amazonian huntresses, combats of gladiators, and bloody encounters, are here presented to our view; but though the fair author sometimes leads us beyond the verge of civil life, she entertains us by a frequent succession of surprising incidents, rendered yet more interesting by the consequences of which they are severally productive.

VIII. *Observations and Experiments on the Poison of Lead.* By Thomas Percival, M. D. 8vo. 2s. Johnson.

ABOUT six years ago Dr. Baker excited the attention of the public by his Essay concerning the Cause of the Endemial Colic of Devonshire, which he imputed to a solution of lead used in the vats wherein the cyder of that country is prepared *. The justness of this opinion was disputed by some other writers, and the controversy was variously agitated for some time. On the one hand, arguments were produced, that seemed to confirm the hypothesis; on the other, those arguments were either positively invalidated; or the facts upon which they were founded were represented as extremely problematical. Whatever opinion the faculty may entertain on that subject, however, it appears beyond dispute that there is in lead a quality pernicious to the nerves of animals, when this metal is so much subtilized as to penetrate their bodies. To prove this point is the design of the treatise before us, which is the production of an author who has more than once favoured the world with valuable medical observations and experiments.

Dr. Percival sets forth with observing that the action of lead is not confined to the human species, but exerts its deleterious powers likewise on quadrupeds and birds. In support of this remark, he produces the following instances.

* A gentleman in Staffordshire used to feed his hounds in troughs lined with lead, and they never hunted but three or four of them fell down during the chase, convulsed and seemingly in agonies of pain. A friend suggested to the owner of the dogs, that these convulsions might possibly arise from some portion of lead dissolved in their food. The leaden troughs were therefore removed, and the hounds from that time were entirely free from this disorder. Another instance, of a similar kind, was related to me by a country gentleman who resides in Derbyshire.

* An intelligent plumber in Manchester assures me, that he is unable to keep a cat in his house above a month or two. The animal soon sickens, becomes rough in its coat, listless, emaciated, and dies in a short time of a marasmus. These symptoms he ascribes to the particles of lead scattered upon the floor of his work-shop, which adhering to the feet of the cat, and being licked off, are swallowed, and exert their virulent powers immediately on the stomach and bowels. A person of the same business, and of good credit in Sheffield,

* See Crit. Rev. vol. xxiv. p. 304.

has observed that cats are fond of the sweet powder with which the surface of lead is generally covered; and that they are affected by it in the manner just described: but he adds that they are sometimes driven to the most outrageous madness; and that he has cured many of these animals, when labouring under the most frightful symptoms, by pouring sweet oil into them.

‘ An ingenious apothecary, whose house is contiguous to a plumber’s shop, has more than once observed appearances of the colica pictonum in his cats; and some of them have become quite frantic with pain.

‘ A red linnet, very lively and in perfect health, and which had been long used to confinement in a cage, was placed in a parlour, recently painted with lead. The bird soon sickened, continually gasped for breath, and died in a few days. Another bird of the same species, and equally healthy, was then purchased to supply its place. This was presently affected in a similar manner, and died in less than a week.

‘ A lady who is attentive to the feeding of her poultry, had troughs of lead made for them, on account of their being more durable and cleanly. After the use of these she observed that her fowls and chickens became sickly, spiritless, and emaciated. The food she gives them consists of bread, potatoes, barley, &c. mixed with butter-milk. The latter ingredient is a powerful solvent of lead; and thus poison is mingled with their nourishment.

‘ A number of ducks and geese, the property of a painter, were all killed by being confined, a single night, in a place supplied with the water in which his brushes had been steeped, to prevent their becoming dry.’

The author afterwards enquires into the validity of the opinion of Mr. Goulard, who maintains that the external use of lead is *never* attended with any of the pernicious effects produced by administering it internally. Dr. Percival admits that the observations of Mess. Aikin and White, in favour of the innocence of topical saturnine applications, have great weight, and that the evidence of these gentlemen is further corroborated by the experience of the faculty at Chester, respecting the use of Goulard’s saturnine water, in the case of many patients who suffered by the unhappy accident on the 5th of November 1772. Dr. Percival, nevertheless acknowledges himself to be of opinion with Dr. Baker, that lead when externally applied, *sometimes* produces effects similar to those which arise from its internal administration. The following facts are recited with the view of confirming this opinion.

‘ Three years ago a young man had a tumour of the spine, which had resisted various discutient remedies. An emollient cataplasm, mixed with the *extractum saturni* of Goulard, was applied. In a few hours he was seized with violent pains in the bowels, and severe cramps in the extremities, which ceased soon after the cataplasm was removed.

‘ A gentlewoman, in August 1770, was over-turned in a chaise, and thrown on the side of her head and shoulder; the muscles of which were much bruised and strained, but the humerus was neither fractured nor dislocated. She was immediately bled, and the venæsection was repeated the next day. A saturnine fomentation was applied warm to the parts affected, and frequently renewed. Twitchings in the legs ensued, and afterwards spasms in the stomach. The fomentation was omitted, and these symptoms ceased; nor did any other application produce the like effect. This lady is subject to the colic; but as she was ignorant of the specific action of lead, the spasms in her stomach cannot be imputed to the force of imagination.

‘ The governor of the work-house in Manchester, aged upwards of seventy years, had a large ulcer in his leg, which was washed several times in the day with the saturnine water of Goulard, and then covered with an emollient poultice, which contained a small quantity of the extract of lead. After using these applications four days, he became affected with the colic, and also with paralytic symptoms, which, though slight in degree, could not fail to be alarming. The preparations of lead were therefore discontinued, a dose of *oleum Ricini* was administered, and he soon recovered from these adventitious complaints.

‘ A lady of a delicate habit, and the mother of four children, soon after delivery, to avoid being a nurse, rubbed her breasts with oil in which litharge and red lead had been boiled. Her milk was by these means repressed; but in a short time she began to complain of acute pain about the stomach and duodenum, loss of appetite, flatulency, and depression of spirits. Opium and the warm bath were the only remedies that afforded relief. Whether these complaints arose from the recession of the milk, or were occasioned by the poisonous action of the calces of lead, I leave to the decision of my reader.

‘ In June 1757, a physician of great humanity, was desired to visit a woman who had a varicose swelling of the veins of the right foot, attended with great pain, swelling, and inflammation. He directed a solution of *saccharum saturni* and opium, in elder flower water, to be frequently applied, by
means

means of linen rags, to the part affected. The pain was alleviated, the swelling diminished, and the redness soon disappeared. But in a few days severe vomitings, a violent colic, and obstinate constipation of the bowels supervened; and the woman was ever afterwards subject to frequent returns of these complaints. The saturnine solution was used only four or five days; nor was it then discontinued from any suspicion of its injurious effects. For very little attention was at that time paid to the noxious qualities of lead.

‘I have been assured from undoubted authority that Dr. A—— had a slight paralytic affection of his legs, by the practice of setting his feet every evening, on a piece of lead placed near the fire. And that a dog by lying on its was entirely deprived of the use of his limbs.’

The second section of this treatise contains observations concerning the effects of lead, which the author has collected in Derbyshire, tending also to prove the existence of a noxious quality in that metal.

Dr. Percival next presents us with some experiments which he made with the design of ascertaining an opinion he had conceived, that fixed air might have the property of dissolving lead in water; and that this poisonous mineral might thus gain admission into the human body from fountains unsuspected, and even celebrated for counteracting its pernicious effects. Dr. Falconer's remark, that the leaden cistern, which serves as a reservoir for the Bath water at the spring, was much corroded on the inside, induced our author to try whether that water was not a solvent of lead. The experiment, he ingeniously informs us, convinced him of the fallacy of his reasoning, and of the caution with which conclusions from analogy should be formed, on philosophical subjects. We shall present our readers with the following experiment relative to the glazing of what is called the queen's ware, as it shews the impropriety of using that sort of vessels for preserving of pickles.

‘The very beautiful polish of the Burslem pottery, commonly called the queen's ware, inclined me to suspect that lead, which is easily vitrified with sand and kali, enters into the composition of its glazing. To determine whether my conjectures were well founded, I poured about an ounce and a half of vinegar upon a plate of this ware, that a large surface of the glazing might be exposed to the action of the vegetable acid. In twenty-four hours the vinegar had acquired a deeper colour, and assumed a dusky hue when two drops of the volatile tincture of sulphur were added to it. The same tincture instilled into fresh vinegar in the like proportion, produced a light cloudiness, which was succeeded by a white sediment;

the sulphur being precipitated by the combination of the acid and alkali. From this trial, which was several times repeated, it should seem that lead is an ingredient in the glazing of the queen's ware; but the portion in which it is used, or at least the quantity dissolved by the vegetable acid, appears to be very inconsiderable. For two drops of a solution of *saccharum saturni* (which I computed to be equal only to the fiftieth part of a grain of lead) mixed with half an ounce of vinegar, struck a darker colour with the tincture of sulphur than the same quantity of vinegar, after its action had been exerted upon the plate forty-eight hours.

'The present experiment therefore furnishes no objection to the common use of this beautiful pottery; but it shews that vessels of it are improper for the preserving of acid fruits and pickles.'

To this experiment we shall subjoin our author's observations on common red sealing wafers.

'These, says he, are made of fine flour, the whites of eggs, isinglass, and a little yeast. They should be coloured with vermillion; but as red lead is much cheaper, I believe it is more frequently used. The common wafers certainly contain a large quantity of it, as any person may discover by setting fire to a few of them, when stuck upon the point of a pin. For the surface of the wafers will be covered with an infinite number of the particles of lead, which running together will fall down into a spoon, or whatever is held to receive them. Wafers are pleasant to the taste, and they are often held long in the mouth, and sometimes swallowed through inadvertence: I have seen children fond of eating them. It is of importance therefore to know that the coarser or common kinds are poisonous, and that it is very absurd economy to purchase such on account of their cheapness. The polished Irish wafers seem to contain no lead.'

—'A lady in Cheshire had a favourite bulfinch, which was so tame as to be permitted to fly about the room; a liberty that seemed to improve both his health and plumage. The bird unfortunately picked up some scraps of wafers, which had been left after sealing a letter. He soon lost his appetite and spirits, and in a few days pined away and died. Another bulfinch was procured, and when sufficiently tame, allowed the liberty which the former had enjoyed; but great care was taken to keep wafers out of his reach. However, by the inadvertence of a stranger in the family, who had been using them, a piece of one was left upon the table, which the bird immediately seized, and like the former sickened and died in consequence of it. Dr. Falconer, to whom I am indebted for

for these facts, adds, that some time afterwards, a third bulfinch, belonging to the same lady, met with a similar fate.'

In an Appendix to this treatise we find a letter from Dr. Haygarth at Chester, one from Dr. Rotheram at Newcastle, and another from Dr. Carte at Manchester; the whole tending to confirm the existence of a deleterious quality in lead.

In a postscript to these Observations Dr. Percival takes notice, that two books of Cookery, lately published, contain receipts for recovering wine when sour, and preventing it from becoming so by means of cerusse, and of melted lead. As this is a practice of the most pernicious tendency, it ought to be universally exploded, and we would warn all persons who regard their own health, or that of others, to refrain from an expedient which may be productive of such fatal effects.

IX. *The Antiquities of Richborough and Reculver. Abridged from the Latin of Mr. Archdeacon Battely. 8vo. 3s. Sewed, Johnson.*

MR. Battely, the original author of this treatise, appears to have been extremely conversant with what relates to the antiquities of this country, and to have diligently studied the Greek and Roman writers for obtaining information on the subject. He seems to ascertain beyond doubt that Richborough is the Rutupiæ, and Recluver the Regulbium of the Romans. He produces many ingenious arguments in refutation of the opinion that Rutupiæ was an inconsiderable place in the time of Cæsar, and investigates with great precision the situation and limits of ancient Cantium. Concerning Regulbium or Reculver, he observes that it is mentioned only in the Notitia of the Provinces, which seems not to be more ancient than the time of Theodosius the Younger; but he thinks it incredible that a place equal to Rutupiæ in size and apparent antiquity, similar in its castle and city, and to appearance intended for the same use, should not have been known at a more early period. This silence of ancient writers induces him to suspect that there existed formerly two places under the name of Rutupiæ in the Isle of Thanet, and that when the Roman empire declined in Britain, one of them was called Regulbium. We shall extract the arguments advanced by the author in favour of the antiquity of Richborough.

'The reasons that induce me to give Richborough the palm of antiquity, as to the Romans, in preference to all other places in Britain, are these. When the Egyptians and Scythians had a dispute concerning the antiquity of their nations, the

the Egyptians highly extolling the mildness of their air and the fruitfulness of their soil, said, that "men might be supposed to have been first born in a place where they might most easily be reared;" and though the chance of birth is not in the power, nor depends on the choice, of those who are born, but is allotted to every one by the Almighty; yet when the question turns on those things which are usually directed by counsel, judgment, and prudence, this method of reasoning ought to have great weight. For instance; who doubts that the Romans, when they landed in our island, first took possession of such places as they judged most convenient for their purpose, not such as were offered to them by chance? But what was more convenient to the Romans than Richborough haven? For thither troops might be transported by a short passage from Gaul, there they might be safely landed, and, if pursued by the enemy, might have an easy retreat. The isle of Thanet, very convenient for foraging, was in the neighbourhood; the harbour was one of those which the Greeks call *αμφοδύμοι*, being accessible on both sides, and safely entered almost with any wind: the river Stour, after passing by our city (Canterbury,) flows into it, and is still useful to us, by the carriage of goods. Allured by these conveniences, the Romans sailing hither from Gaul, generally made use of that harbour.

'Dubris and Lemanis [Dover and Lympne] are, it must be owned, celebrated harbours on the same coast, and both their names occur in the Itinerary of Antoninus; but who supposes those places comparable to Richborough, which, in the same Itinerary, is styled, by way of eminence, "the haven of Britain;" and on the decline of which, our Somner justly thinks that Dover at length began to flourish. In short, certain it is that Julius Cæsar, as well on account of his perpetual wars, as of the shortness of his stay in our island, left none but hasty fortifications, that is, composed of earth and turf; though the credulous and the ignorant extol him as the founder and builder of almost all the castles in Britain. Nothing was attempted here under the emperors Augustus and Tiberius; Caligula, with ridiculous warlike preparations, and great endeavours, did absolutely nothing. At length Claudius, by the instigation of Bericus, Aulus Plautius being his general, reduced to his obedience the southern part of the island; which war happened in the year of Rome 796, of Christ 47. At that time I suppose Richborough to have been first besieged by the Romans, and to have been seized, fortified, and garrisoned; for if this had been done by Cæsar himself, or by any other general before the time of Claudius, there would have

have been no occasion for A. Plautius, when going over into Britain with his army, to separate his forces into three divisions, lest making an attempt at one place they should be prevented from landing; and Plautius, a wise and experienced commander, would have made it his first and immediate concern; as, on penetrating into the inner parts of the island, he had great occasion for such a convenient spot, as well for receiving succours from Gaul, as for providing a place of retreat in case of accidents.

Mr. Battely fixes the origin of Rutupia or Richborough, as far back as the epoch of commerce in this island; and with respect to Regulbium or Reculver, he thinks that the consular denarii, the coins of almost all the emperors from Julius Cæsar to Honorius, particularly the brass coins of Tiberius and Nero, sharp, and in appearance fresh from the mint, which have been found at this place, afford incontestible evidence that it is likewise of great antiquity.

The author's conjecture respecting the cause of so many Roman coins being left in Britain, is rational, and supported by probability.

‘In order to explain, says he, how so great a number of Roman coins came to be left in Britain, let it be premised, that many reasons which have been assigned seem utterly improbable; for who can persuade himself that so many and such great treasures were hidden in the earth to perpetuate the memory of that people, that they might again by chance be brought to light, after a revolution of many ages? Or that, for such a trifling glory, coins were deposited in the foundations of buildings? But allowing this to be a probable solution of such as sometimes appear in foundations, and in the cement of walls; what shall we say of those which are found in fields and meadows, where there are no remains of buildings? There can be no doubt that the mistress of the world was as studious to preserve the present honour of her name, as to immortalise her memory in future; but by public works, magnificent edifices, trophies, triumphal arches, theatres, columns, fortifications, paved causeways, and the like, she endeavoured to excite the admiration of her own and the veneration of succeeding ages. These that wisest of all nations, next to justice, fortitude, and the other virtues, rightly considered as the most certain seeds of glory; not the scattering of a few brass coins, which, though they derive some permanence from their materials, yet, while they lie in the earth, reflect no praise either on their owners or others: while, on the contrary, the very ruins and remains of palaces, houses, temples, aqueducts, and bridges always strike the human eye,
and

and display such an inexpressible grandeur and magnificence as scarce allow us to suspect that there ever was any thing mean or little in that nation; for we are so formed by nature, that we usually judge of the things which are not seen by those which we see.

This difficulty is not sufficiently solved by those who pretend, that these treasures were buried by the soldiers just before they were transported by Maximus into Gaul, or by the Britons on their setting out for Rome to solicit assistance against the Scots and Picts: for if that were true, it could only include the later coins of the Romans. The following solution therefore seems more probable. Spartian relates, that "Pescennius Niger ordered the soldiers to carry no gold nor silver coins to war in their purses, but to lodge them in the public treasury, and afterwards to receive what they had entrusted, that, in case of misfortunes, the enemy might receive no part of the spoil." This, I imagine, was an ancient military discipline, which had been disused long before the time of Pescennius, and, when revived by him, did not long continue; but that it was rather usual for every soldier, when setting out for a campaign, or at the eve of a battle, to have the option of carrying his effects with him, or of hiding them in what place he pleased. Afterwards I suppose this to have been the practice of the Roman army in our island, whenever they were drawn out of their camps, or stations, to make long and uncertain marches against the enemy; and this was very often the case, as well on account of the commotions of the Britons, as of the sudden irruptions of the barbarians; at which time, in hopes of returning, and recovering their property, they deposited their money in the ground: thus by the treasures of those who were slain in battle we are enriched. The same may be said of those who being either besieged, or dislodged from their castles and towns, had no opportunity to remove their money; and this is the reason that such coins are generally found near towns and stations: in short, to the fatal events of war, to the storming and burning of houses, towns, and cities, we owe great part of our antiquarian wealth.

We are afterwards entertained with a particular account of Roman coins, and other antiquities discovered at Reculver. The whole of this treatise evinces the author to have investigated the ancient writers with great attention, and that he has drawn from this source a variety of ingenious and plausible arguments for the antiquity of the places of which he writes. It ought likewise to be observed, that in the course of these researches he has thrown new light on many passages in the Roman historians and poets.

X. *An Essay towards the History of Liverpool, drawn up from Papers left by the late Mr. George Perry, and from other Materials since collected, by William Endfield. Fol. 12s. boards. Johnson.*

THE town, which is the subject of this volume, is said to have received a charter so early as from Henry I. but the most ancient that remains is from king John, in 1203, where the orthography of the first syllable of the name is the same which this author has adopted. With respect to the etymology, we find that various conjectures have been entertained: some imagining that the former part of the name was derived from a bird called the *Liver*, used to be seen in that place, but which is now reputed fabulous: others, that it has been taken from a sea-weed known by the name of *Liver*, in the west of England, or from a species of the *Hepatica*; while those who favour a different orthography, are of opinion that the name derives its origin from the *Lever* family, which we are told is of great antiquity in the county of Lancaster: it is generally agreed, that the latter part of the name took its rise from a body of water. So much for the etymology of this place.

The second chapter of this work contains an account of the situation, climate, soil, river, and tide, with the various kinds of fish taken at Liverpool. We shall present our readers with this chapter.

Liverpool stands on the eastern banks of the river Mersey, in the county palatine of Lancaster, and hundred of West Derby. Its situation is low; extending along the shore in an oval form. On the north side of the town the country is a perfect flat for many miles. It is surrounded on the east side with higher land, gradually rising from the town to about the distance of a mile; forming on the whole, a situation extremely pleasant and commodious for trade.

Few places enjoy a more healthful climate, or happy temperature of heat and cold, than Liverpool. It is screened from the severe easterly winds in the winter, by the range of high lands on that side; and the refreshing sea-breezes from the west, frequently allay the excessive heat of summer. Snow, which falls here but rarely, seldom lies long; nor indeed any where upon the sea-coast. Frost is never so intense here as in the inland countries. In the hot and sultry months it seldom happens that the atmosphere is perfectly calm; the sea affording that perpetual current of air which is a circumstance of such great importance to the healthfulness of large and populous cities. The transitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat, are indeed frequent and sudden; no place perhaps has a greater variety of weather. It must also be confessed, that the air in general is moister, than in more elevated situations. Copious exhalations from the Irish sea, formed into low clouds, and carried along by the stream of air attending the flowing tides, frequently water the banks of the Dee and the Mersey

Mersey without extending further; which may in part account for the common observation, that greater quantities of rain fall annually in the southern parts of Lancashire, than in most other parts of England.

' This humidity of the atmosphere often occasions thick fogs and dark weather in the winter season; but is very serviceable in spring and summer, by affording a degree of moisture proper for vegetation to this sandy soil, which would otherwise quickly suffer by drought. The sea air renders the town so healthful, that, though it is exceedingly populous and closely built, epidemical disorders seldom appear, and when they do, are of short duration.

' The effect of the winds upon the state of the weather is generally as follows. The north-west winds are turbulent and stormy; the southern productive of rain; the easterly winds often accompany a serene sky, and the severest cold and frost usually come with a north or north-east wind.

' The soil in and near Liverpool is dry and sandy for two miles round. The north shore consists of barren sands for an extent of twenty miles; but between the town and Kirkdale is a fine vale, which has a rich marle under the surface, and affords excellent pasturage. This track of ground was formerly common arable land, but has been many years inclosed. The soil in the neighbourhood of this town is particularly favourable to the growth of potatoes; an article highly useful to the poor, acceptable to the rich, and profitable to the industrious farmer. The cultivation of this excellent root has of late been so much attended to in this county, that the husbandman often depends more upon a good crop of potatoes than of wheat or any other grain.

' The river Mersey, which may more properly be considered as an arm of the sea, is subject to the variations of the tide. In spring tides, which are at their greatest height three or four days after new or full moon, the water rises about thirty feet; and in neap tides, which are lowest soon after the first and third quarter of the moon, about fifteen feet. For the first two or three days after the full and change, the daily difference of time, including two tides, is at a medium about thirty-five minutes; at the mean, between spring and neap, it is fifty minutes three seconds; about two or three days before quarter day it is upwards of an hour; and after that time the daily difference increases, so that there will often be the difference of above fifty minutes for each tide till about three days before the full and change, when it gradually returns toward the mean point. From the beginning of May to the beginning of November the night tides rise highest, and from November to May the day tides rise highest, sometimes with a difference of two feet. This account of the appearance of the tides is in general accurate; but they are subject to such variations, from the difference of the moon's distance from the earth, the state of the winds, and other circumstances, that no calculations or tables can be perfectly exact.

' The breadth of the river at high water from Seacombe point to the opposite shore is 1200 yards; from the Pitch-house to Bir-kett-point, is 1500 yards.'

In the third the author treats of the ancient history and gradual increase of the town. It is acknowledged that the antiquity of Liverpool cannot be traced so far back as the time of the Romans; the first authentic mention of the spot where

where the town stands being apparently the record of the estates between the Ribble and Mersey, then belonging to Roger of Poitiers, in Domesday-book.

The fourth chapter treats of the topography, dimensions, state of population and health, temperature of the sea. We shall lay before our readers the observations made on the temperature of the air at Liverpool, by Dr. Dobson.

‘ Great and sudden changes in the temperature of the air, have very sensible, and often very prejudicial effects on the human body.

‘ When the change is from heat to cold, catarrhs, coughs, rheumatism, and inflammatory complaints in general, are produced. In Virginia, and other parts of the continent of North America, where they sometimes experience, during the course of a few hours, the heat almost of summer and the cold of winter, local inflammations, and especially pleurifies and peripneumonies; are very frequent, very rapid, and very dangerous.

‘ When cold is succeeded by heat, with a close and moist atmosphere, languor, dejection, and slight vertigos, are the most obvious effects; and palsies and apoplexies are by such occasional causes rendered more frequent. But when great heat is accompanied with moisture, a still air, and the accumulation of animal and vegetable effluvia, diseases of a malignant and infectious nature, are then to be feared. At Charles Town in South-Carolina, the epidemic diseases return as exactly at their stated periods, as if they were regulated by the movements of a good clock; namely, during July, August, and September, when great heat and moisture prevail. And Prosper Alpinus observed, that the plague and other pestilential diseases raged periodically in Egypt, during certain seasons of the year.

‘ The present observations on the state of the air at Liverpool, relate only to its changes as to heat and cold: and whether we consider the daily variations, or the changes which occur through the course of the year, we shall find that it is more temperate than that of many other places. The maritime situation of Liverpool contributes to this mildness of the air. For as the sea is of a middle temperature between the heat of summer and the cold of winter, the access of the tides must have a considerable effect in rendering each of these more moderate, than in inland situations. At Warrington, which is about 18 miles inland from Liverpool, a very accurate observer found the mercury in the thermometer down at 13, in the winter of 1772. In other parts of England it has been found still lower; and at Derby near one degree below 0. These are degrees of cold, to which we are strangers at Liverpool, and from which we are secured by the influence of the sea.

‘ The first of the following tables, points out the changes which occurred during the course of the year. The observations were made between two and three o'clock in the afternoon, which is the hottest part of the day. The thermometer, which was Fahrenheit's, was hung in the shade, on the outside of a window looking to the north-east, and there was no fire in the adjoining room.

‘ The first column shews the greatest, the second the least, and the third the mean heat, of each month.

A TABLE

‘ A TABLE of the Variations of the Thermometer during the Year 1772.

	G.	L.	M.
January	50	31	38
February	51	28	39
March	54	33	44
April	60	42	48
May	67	52	57
June	76	58	67
July	78	66	70
August	74	$64\frac{1}{2}$	$68\frac{1}{2}$
September	67	56	$62\frac{1}{2}$
October	65	51	60
November	63	43	$50\frac{1}{2}$
December	63	$33\frac{1}{2}$	$44\frac{1}{2}$

‘ From this table we find, that the mean temperature of the whole year was $54\frac{1}{2}$; and that the variations, during the course of the year, amounted to 50 degrees, varying from 28 to 78. In South Carolina, the annual variation has extended to 83 degrees.

‘ The winter of this year was colder, and the summer hotter, than what is common at Liverpool; and yet the highest degree to which the mercury rose, was 78. At Bengal the mercury is often at 104; and this extreme degree of heat is one cause of the great unhealthiness of the climate.

‘ From the second table, we learn the state of the daily variations during the same year. The first column points out the greatest variation in any one day, from 8 in the morning to 10 at night; the second, the least; and the third, the mean variation of the month.

‘ A TABLE of the Daily Variations.

	G.	L.	M.
January	8	1	$3\frac{3}{5}$
February	14	1	$4\frac{3}{4}$
March	10	2	$5\frac{3}{4}$
April	12	3	$6\frac{1}{27}$
May	12	3	$7\frac{2}{3}$
June	12	3	$6\frac{14}{19}$
July	10	3	$6\frac{1}{9}$
August	8	2	$5\frac{1}{11}$
September	9	1	$5\frac{1}{9}$
October	9	2	$5\frac{1}{3}$
November	6	2	$4\frac{18}{19}$
December	6	1	$3\frac{1}{11}$

‘ From this table we see, that the medium of the daily variations of each month was regularly increasing till May; and from the end of that month to the end of December, was again almost uniformly diminish-

diminishing. During the depth of winter therefore, we are not so much endangered from the natural variations in the temperature of the day, as from the artificial ones, occasioned by large fires and close rooms.

' The greatest daily variation indeed, occurred on the 8th of February, which was the coldest day in the year. Early in the morning, the mercury was down at 20. At 8, the same morning, it continued at 20. A thaw soon commenced; and at 2, the mercury was at 32, and at 10 at night, 34. All the other daily variations through this month were inconsiderable, and the medium of the variations no more than 4½.

' If we attend to the daily variations in other places, we shall find them much greater. In South-Carolina, they sometimes extend to 30 degrees; which is more than double the greatest of our daily variations: and these great and sudden changes, must make the diseases of Charles-Town more dangerous and more frequently fatal, than those of Liverpool.'

The fifth chapter treats of the principal public structures, and institutions; the sixth, of commerce and manufactures. It may not be unacceptable to our readers to see a comparative view of the trade of Liverpool and Bristol.

' Account of the number of ships which yearly sailed to and from the ports of Liverpool and Bristol, taken on an average of five years, viz. 1759 to 1763.

FOREIGN TRADE.

Inwards.		Tons.		Tons.	
Liverpool	548	British ships	36292	88	Foreign ships
Bristol	293	Do.	24389	48	Do.
Outwards.					
Liverpool	634	British ships	40750	93	Foreign ships
Bristol	277	Do.	23548	47	Do.

COASTING TRADE.

Inwards.		Tons.		Outwards.		Tons.	
Bristol	1815 vessels	45685		1212 vessels		34713	
Liverpool	776 Do.	27387		633 Do.		22780	

Trade to Africa.		Amer. Trade Inw.		Amer. Trade Outw.	
	Tons.		Tons.		Tons.
Liverpool	67 ships 7181	136 ships 15481		128 ships 13942	
Bristol	25 Do. 2767	123 Do. 13283		108 Do. 13112	

IRISH TRADE.

Inwards.		Tons.		Outwards.		Tons.	
Liverpool	327 ships	15777		371 ships		16648	
Bristol	108 Do.	5383		99 Do.		4851	

' Bristol indeed, upon the same average exceeded Liverpool in the duties and customs of the port, in the following proportion:

	Receipt.	Management.	Debentures.	Remittances.
Bristol	£298:985:0:0	£9153:0:0	£126:276:0:0	£163:556:0:0
Liverp.	251:650:0:0	4904:0:0	177:238:0:0	69:508:0:0

But this is easily accounted for by considering the difference in the articles of commerce in the two ports; Bristol trading largely in fruit, wines, and other articles which pay much higher duty than those which are usually brought into the port of Liverpool.

Number of ships to and from the port of Liverpool and Bristol for the year 1764.

Liverpool.			Bristol.		
	Inwards.	Outwards.		Inw.	Outw.
Africa directly	7	74	Africa	0	32
America	188	141	America	137	105
Denmark	0	19	Canaries	3	3
Flanders	4	7	France	1	5
France	2	5	Germany	3	1
Germany	7	14	Guernsey and Jersey	6	7
Greenland	3	3	Holland	7	5
Holland	4	14	Ireland	79	107
Ireland	418	455	Italy	5	0
Isle of Man	46	56	Levant	1	0
Italy	4	5	Newfoundland	6	14
North fishery	1	1	Norway	13	14
Norway	19	7	Poland	3	4
Portugal	11	3	Portugal	15	8
Prussia	18	12	Russia	5	2
Russia	21	2	Saxony	5	3
Spain	5	3	Spain	30	28
Sweden	3	2	Sweden	9	0
			Tuscany	3	1
	766	823		332	343

The seventh chapter is employed on the internal police of the town. An Appendix is added, containing an account of the ancient state of this part of Lancashire, its divisions according to the Doomsday-book, explanation of the map, and an account of several neighbouring places. The plates of the public edifices, of which there is a great number in this volume, are admirably executed by Rooker.

XI. *Considerations on the State of Subscription to the Articles and Liturgy of the Church of England, towards the Close of the Year 1773.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wilkie.

THOUGH nothing has been judicially determined concerning subscription, nor any step been taken towards the amendment of our ecclesiastical system of doctrines and discipline, yet many publications have lately appeared, by which new light has been thrown upon the subject, the minds of men opened and enlarged, and the cause imperceptibly advanced. If the controversy should be still continued with prudence and temper, the legislature will probably be induced to think

think more seriously upon the subject, and attempt some useful reformation.

Within the present century we have made considerable improvements in the arts and sciences. The physics and metaphysics of Aristotle, which were once in the highest estimation, the very standard of truth and reason, are now exploded. The cobwebs and rubbish of the schools are swept away, and buried in oblivion. A new philosophy is introduced, founded upon mathematical demonstration, and actual experiments. But in religion, a set of articles, drawn up two centuries ago, suitable to the scholastic notions of those times, remain still in use, as the pattern, according to which all the clergy are to square their opinions, and frame their instructions! Men of sense, who read and reflect, easily perceive and acknowledge their impertinence; and heartily wish that we could explode absurdities in theology, as we have exploded absurdities in philosophy. But there seems to be a certain timidity, irresolution, or indolence, in those who ought to conduct and accomplish a reformation. Some are unable, and others are unwilling, to manage the important undertaking, and therefore they are disposed to defer it to a more *convenient season*.

The author of the pamphlet, which we have now before us, having given us an historical view of the state of subscription, from the Reformation to the present time, and shewn its inutility, its impropriety upon Protestant principles, thus addresses himself to the legislature:

‘ Think upon these things with the seriousness that such a cause deserves; and ask yourselves, if you do not exert your endeavours to rectify, no nor even to enquire into, what has been pointed out to your examination, what has been so repeatedly requested, and in the name of Christianity demanded, how will you answer for the omission at the tribunal of the last day? You our legislators, to whom these affairs are entrusted? You who alone can redress them?

‘ As to what the author of this pamphlet would advise; it does not become him to advise what should be done, but to implore that something may. If the laying aside subscription entirely be thought Utopian or unsafe, he would not recommend it. He would recommend to sacrifice to the times as far as in conscience may be done; to do what is requisite at present, what we are convinced is proper, and leave the rest to a future day; if experience shall hereafter shew any thing farther to be necessary. No one is more ready than he to sacrifice to the sentiments and tempers of others: but he never will sacrifice his religion to policy.

‘ Since confessions have been tried in most protestant churches, from their earliest days until now; and have ever been found defective and inadequate, and too frequently the cause of unchristian animosities; he would wish that ours might stand as it is, together with our homilies, as a mark of what our church once thought in her earliest days, and what perhaps some of her sons may think still; without henceforward requiring subscription to it. Let that entirely be voluntary as it was in the first confession at Augsburg. Let us content ourselves with requiring only a specific declaration from protestant Christians, of their faith in Jesus Christ, and their belief in the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testament, as the rule of that faith. (This our church at present in her sixth article, affirms to be all that is necessary, all that can justly be required; though strange to say! she does not confine herself to her own position.) Let us amend our liturgy, as many of our prelates and most learned divines for near a century past have desired, and then conform to it. And if this be not sufficient, and a set of articles be still thought necessary to be superadded for the safety of our own church; let those articles be few, simple, perhaps negative propositions; and certainly always referring every one of them ultimately to scripture. But let not the Dissenters be bound down to them. And let our own terms of subscription be so conceived and expressed, as to leave out all solemn declaration of assent to any words and definitions of man’s device, to any but the pure word of God, which in our ordinations we promised to study, and which Protestants must make their only rule. This, with submission, the author thinks is the utmost that ought to be required, and the utmost that can sincerely and honestly be complied with.

‘ But, above all (if this shall be thought too much to attempt; or there be no one among us who will take this trouble for the sake of our holy religion, for which we all profess such veneration) he begs and desires, for truth’s sake, that our holy church at all events be cleared of all kinds of prevarication: that prevarication no longer be countenanced in her; that prevarication be not objectionable to her. This it is to be hoped may be done without hazarding our all. This surely is absolutely and indispensably requisite. In this he cannot be mistaken. And thus it should seem, our bishops might get effected, if they would heartily and in earnest set about it. This at least our most christian bishops might be seen to attempt, whatever the less religious or more worldly politicians may pretend. To their own consciences he refers it, whether this does not cry aloud for amendment: and this he then requests of them,

hem, as they value that religion they profess, as they regard that church of which they are appointed overseers, that they would defer no longer.

‘ However, since our bishops are but a part of the legislature in this kingdom, though particularly entrusted in the ecclesiastical concerns of it; and since it is supposed that reformations have seldom come from the clergy, though there is no reason why they should not; yet, since it does belong to each of the three estates of the realm, and to every individual in each, to give redress where it is wanted; he appeals to every ingenuous heart among them, every breast that has any sense of religion, any feelings of conscience, to judge, whether redress be not wanted now. And he adjures them all, by the tender mercies of God, by their hopes of acceptance through Christ, and as they will answer it at the day of judgment, that if it be wanted, they who alone can move it, do exert their endeavours to get it granted.’

This is an excellent tract, written in a masterly manner; exhibiting a distinct view of the rise and progress of subscriptions; and breathing a spirit of true Christian liberty and rational religion.

XII. *Original Poems, Translations, and Imitations, from the French, &c. By a Lady. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Robinson.*

WE do not sacrifice justice to compliment, when we admit these Poems to possess a considerable share of merit. In support of this opinion, we shall lay before our readers some stanzas from the first poem in the collection, intitled, *The Search of Happiness, or The Vision.*

‘ How did my youthful fancy glow,
To seize each gay delight!
What joys then sprung from brilliant show,
Where song, or dance invite!
‘ On wing of sportive mirth still borne,
The moments fled away:
Diversion’s path was trac’d each morn,
To guide the trifling day.
‘ At length, th’ attractive pleasure o’er,
Enjoying thought serene:
Reflexion shed her rays, no more
I taste the gaudy scene.
‘ My fancy painted purer joys;
Unmix’d with folly’s glare:
By reason weigh’d, her gilded toys,
Like bubbles, burst in air.
‘ With eager wish, to snatch the prize
Of bliss, without allay,

I sought the mazy path that lies
 Thro' wisdom's lucid way.
 ' From what the Grecian sages spoke,
 Content I hop'd to find;
 And Plato's shade with zeal invoke,
 To guide an untaught mind.
 ' His maxims glow with virtue's fire;
 Sublime in every thought!
 O! who can read, and not aspire
 To reach the morals taught?
 ' But Plato, in his daring flight,
 Like the bold eagle soars:
 His thoughts, replete with dazzling light,
 In vain my view explores.'

The subjects of these Poems are of different kinds, and an agreeable turn of reflection is perceptible through the whole; but we cannot help wishing that the fair author had made use of a greater variety of measure; as the ear is apt to be tired with a frequent repetition of the same cadence. The similarity of the subsequent poem, however, in this point, to that which we already quoted, ought by no means to preclude it from the favourable reception it deserves.

' The Vain Attempt.

' O were Philander's charms confin'd
 To features, winning grace!
 Absence might drive him from my mind,
 Or fairer forms efface.
 ' But when the powers of wit combine,
 With pleasing force to warm:
 Where wisdom, honour, genius, shine,
 Oh how resist the charm!
 ' While reason, and reflection's aid,
 Can only fan the fire;
 And strengthen all impressions made,
 Not quell the fond desire.
 ' With books I try'd to sooth my pain,
 And all my sufferings ease:
 Alas! no authors entertain;
 No wit but his can please.
 ' If of philosophy they treat,
 My passion they renew:
 The sage of all the most complete,
 Is present to my view.
 ' His image to efface I sought
 And tear it from my breast:
 But oh! how vain! whilst ev'ry thought
 Recalls the fatal guest.
 ' The conflict's o'er, be calm my heart,
 And cease thy fate to mourn:
 By merit gain'd, endure the smart,
 Tho' hopeless of return.'

In the Translations and Imitations, the genius of this hand-maid of the Muses appears equally to advantage.

IX. *The Man of Business, a Comedy.* As it is acted at the
Theatre-Royal, in Covent-Garden. By George Colman
 8vo. 1s. 6d. Becket.

THE plot of this Comedy having been so fully related in the public papers, we shall only observe in general, that it is well constructed for exhibiting the scenes of commercial life in such a light as to afford entertainment on the theatre, and that the author has arranged the incidents to the greatest advantage. The intrigues of business are here described in so lively a manner, that we are not left to regret the absence of those of gallantry, which for the most part constitute the subject of the comic Muse. Of the latter, however, this comedy is not entirely destitute; and the amour between Beverley and Lydia is conducted with the reciprocation of such generous sentiments, as rival in purity the chaste compositions of Terence. The conversation in the following scenes is extremely natural, and supported with a high degree of humour.

‘ *Fable.* Good morrow, Check !

‘ *Check.* Good morrow to your honour !——The shop is just opened and sprinkled. I am going to the compting-house.

‘ *Fab.* That’s right, Check. Regularity and punctuality are the life of business.

‘ *Check.* The life and soul, sir. I have always found them so—always exact myself I can answer—always precise to a second—and as true to my time as the men that strike the quarters at St. Dunstan’s. Ha ! ha !

‘ *Fab.* You’re merry, Check !

‘ *Check.* Ah ! I wish I had cause, sir. Another great house in the city stopt payment yesterday, and a large sum subscribed to prop the credit of another. Sad times, Mr. Fable !

‘ *Fab.* Sad times ! sad men, honest Check. Men make the times.

‘ *Check.* Very true, very true, sir. Ah, one need not go far from home to know that, sir. In poor old Mr. Beverley’s time, when we carried on business in Threadneedle-street, those were days, Mr. Fable ! I wish we were on the other side of Temple-bar again !

‘ *Fab.* No, no ; you are right just where you are, friend. The two sides of Temple bar have changed hands, Check, The gay, smart, airy sparks of the west end of the town have all taken to business, and are turned sheriffs and aldermen ; and the merchants, bankers, and tradesmen, are your principal persons of pleasure now-a-days.

‘ *Check*. Ah, I am afraid so. Here’s a house, forsooth my old lady always entertaining company at home, and my young master always abroad : night turned into day, and day turned into night ! It was not so in my old master’s time. Never out of the regular channel ; sure and moderate profit ; quiet, sober living ; a plain joint and a pudding on week days, and, perhaps, two joints and two puddings on Sunday !

‘ *Fab*. Nay, nay, don’t be melancholy, Check. You may live to see two puddings on table again, perhaps.

‘ *Check*. We have no hopes but in you, Mr. Fable ; no hope but in you, sir ! Every thing would go to wreck and ruin, if it was not for you, sir.

‘ *Fab*. Come, come ; cheer up, honest Check ! your young master will take up shortly. He has a good heart, and a good understanding.

‘ *Check*. I wish he would make less use of his heart, and more of his understanding, sir. He is as generous as a prince, and he thinks all his acquaintance as honest and generous as himself. Let him mind his friend, Mr. Denier, sir. There’s a young man for you ! merry and wise, I warrant him ! He knows that a shilling is a serious thing ; that a penny saved is a penny got ; and two and two make four, sir.

‘ *Fab*. Beverley will find it out at last, Check.—Have you prepared the books and papers as I directed you ?

‘ *Check*. I have, sir.

‘ *Fab*. Very well. Let them be ready for inspection this very morning ; and tell Mr. Beverley I am gone to the Bank ; but desire he would not be out of the way at my return, as I have something of consequence to say to him. Good morrow Check !

‘ *Check*. Good morrow to your honour ! I shall be sure to let Mr. Beverley know, sir. [Exit Fable.

Oh, here comes his gentleman, as they call him. I wish there was not such a gentleman within the bills of mortality.

Enter Handy.

Good morrow to you Mr. Handy ! Good morrow !

‘ *Handy*. What ! my old Rule of Three ! are you there ? good morrow to you !

‘ *Check*. Mr. Beverley is not up yet, I suppose.

‘ *Handy*. Then you suppose wrong, Old Threadneedle ! He is up, I assure you.

‘ *Check*. Indeed ! why he is more early than ordinary, Mr. Handy.

‘ *Handy*. Much later than ordinary, master Check. He has not been to bed yet.

‘ *Check*.

* *Check.* Mercy on me! past eight in the morning, and not gone to bed yet?

* *Handy.* No, he's not come home from the masquerade.

* *Check.* The masquerade! Oh, now you have accounted for it.

* *Handy.* Yes, I had some thoughts of being at the Pantheon myself, but——

* *Check.* What! at the sixpenny Pantheon, at Islington, Mr. Handy?

* *Handy.* Sixpenny Pantheon! S'death what d'ye mean, sir? do you take me for a little shopkeeping mechanic, or one of your dapper city clerks, that draws his pen from under his ear in the evening, to go and drink tea at Bagnigge Wells or Dobney's Bowling Green? No, sir; let me tell you I frequent no diversions but those of persons of quality. Plays now and then, operas twice a week, and masquerades whenever there are any.—A lady of my particular acquaintance—of the first fashion I assure you, old gentleman,—had provided me a ticket, and a domino, with a smart hat and feather, and diamond button and loop to it.—But as the devil would have it, my lord du—zouns, what was I saying?—Her husband, I say, happening to come in at an unfortunate moment, saw the dress lying in her apartment. My lady—a devilish clever woman upon my soul—turned it off with a laugh, and told him she had provided them on purpose for him, in order to surprise him with a piece of conjugal gallantry. So away they went to the Pantheon together, and I was obliged to amuse myself with another woman of quality who kept house all the evening, to console myself for my disappointment.

* *Check.* You imagine I have a large portion of faith, I believe, Mr. Handy.

* *Handy.* Faith!—Why have I offered to borrow any money of you, you old multiplication-table? Eh!

* *Check.* You have not taken that liberty with me, because you knew I would lend you none: but you are rather too familiar with your betters methinks.

* *Handy.* They are familiar with us, and encourage familiarities on our side.—Nay, if you would follow my advice, I would engage to make a fortune even for you, old Methusalem!

* *Check.* For me, Mr. Handy!

* *Handy.* Ay, for you, old boy! What do you think now of making love to Mrs. Golding? Her husband's abroad, you know. Intrigues are the mode, and she loves to be in the fashion.—Devil take me, if I don't think she and you would make

make an excellent *tête-à-tête*—Shalum and Hilpa! Eh, my old antediluvian.

* *Check*. A truce with your wit, good Mr. Handy; and please to let your master know that Mr. Fable desires to see him on some particular business as soon as he is stirring,—which, perhaps, may be about dinner-time.

* *Handy*. What! do you pretend to joke too? Pounds, shillings, and pence—you had best stick to that, old gentleman.

* *Check*. They won't stick to you long, I am afraid, young gentleman. Ha, ha!

The author has so happily discriminated the several characters, that though many of the persons be in the same way of life, we observe in each of them such distinguishing features as preclude the idea of their similarity, and afford a diversity of entertainment throughout the successive scenes. The part, however, in which the merit of this Comedy appears most conspicuous, is the description of dissipation and folly, where we are presented with many just and sarcastic reflections on the manners of the times. We shall present our readers with the commencement of the third act, where the warm expostulation of Tropic, and the coolness of Fable, are so strongly represented as to afford a most striking and agreeable contrast.

* *Enter servant shewing in Tropic.*

* *Serv*. What must I say to Mr. Fable, sir?

* *Trop*. Only let him know that his old friend Mr. Tropic, the ship's husband, desires to speak with him.

* *Serv*. I shall, sir.

[*Exit*.

* *Tropic alone*,

Yes, I shall speak to him—and pretty roundly too, I believe!—What times we live in! No morals, no order, no decency! Barefaced villainy at one end of the town, and villainy in a mask at the other!—But my old friend here a hypocrite! I should almost as soon have mistrusted myself. It is an unthankful office to give advice and reproof; but it is the duty, as well as privilege, of those who have been long acquainted with each other, to let an old friend know, that all the world thinks him a scoundrel.—Oh, here he is. I'll give it him—I'll lecture him—I'll—

* *Enter Fable*.

* *Fab*. Ha! my old friend, Tropic! How are you? How do you?

* *Trop*. Well, very well.

* *Fab*.

* *Fab.* I am glad on't ; I rejoice to see you.

* *Trop.* May be so, may be so.

* *Fab.* And your family ?—All well, I hope.

* *Trop.* All very well.

* *Fab.* And the young supercargo ?—How does he go on ?

* *Trop.* Mighty well, mighty well.

* *Fab.* Excellent !—And his elder brother that was placed at Madrafs, is he removed to Bengal yet, as he proposed ?

* *Trop.* He is, he is ; but——

* *Fab.* That's right : Madrafs for health, Bengal for wealth !—that's the maxim there, you know.

* *Trop.* Very true, very true ; but——

* *Fab.* And Mrs. Tropick too—How is she ? How is your wife ?

* *Trop.* P'shaw ! let my wife alone : I want to speak with you, old Fable ; I want to speak with you.

* *Fab.* Well ; why don't you then ?

* *Trop.* Because you hinder me. You stop my mouth with enquiries, and won't let me squeeze in a syllable edgeways—A plague of your questions !

* *Fab.* Well, speak. I am all attention. What have you to say to me ?

* *Trop.* Have you a friend or acquaintance in the world ?

* *Fab.* I think so ; some few true friends, many more very suspicious, and a number of common acquaintance.

* *Trop.* And do you expect to keep one that has common sense or common honesty for the future ?

* *Fab.* Yes ;—and yourself in particular.——But what's the matter ? If you think I have done any thing wrong, it would be but friendly to tell me so.

* *Trop.* I came on purpose to tell you ; I came on purpose to abuse you, old Fable.

* *Fab.* I am obliged to you ; but for what reason !

* *Trop.* Every honest man should not only abhor a crime, but even keep clear of suspicion.

* *Fab.* Impossible.

* *Trop.* How so ?

* *Fab.* Both are not in his power. Not to be criminal, indeed, lies in his own breast ; but suspicion and calumny, in the breasts and mouths of others. You consider yourself as an honest man, I suppose.

* *Trop.* Zouns ! I know I am, without considering at all.

* *Fab.* And yet, honest as you are, you could no more prevent my thinking you a rascal, were I inclined to believe you one, than I could hinder your calling me so.

* *Trop.*

' *Trop.* I tell you all the world calls you so. It is the talk of the whole city—the Alley is full of it—the 'Change rings with it—and by and by, I suppose, the talkers in Leadenhall-street will harangue about it. You are pretty well paragraphed already, old Fable.

' *Fab.* I can't help their talking or writing. I can only take care not to deserve it.

' *Trop.* Not deserve it!—Why, was not Golding, the great banker, here, your old friend and acquaintance?

' *Fab.* Most intimately so; most confidentially; or, at his departure for India, he would scarce have trusted his whole family and affairs to my care, with the particular charge of young Beverley.

' *Trop.* Oh, did he so!—Now we are come to the point then.—And a fine guardian you have shewn yourself—a pretty friend to Mr. Golding too! You have staggered the credit of the house, driven the poor young fellow almost out of his senses, and made yourself his sole trustee and creditor. Every body sees what you drive at—but the court of chancery may bring you to account yet, old Fable,

' *Fab.* Let the parties file their bill at their pleasure—or rather do you be my chancellor.

' *Trop.* I your chancellor!

' *Fab.* Yes, you, my friend. I'll put in my answer immediately—but remember, that while I call upon your judgment in equity, I must also insist on your secrecy.

' *Trop.* What! keep it a secret that you are an honest man?—Let all the world suppose you a scoundrel?

' *Fab.* No matter. Don't let your zeal for my character teach them to unriddle the mystery at present; but rather assist me in carrying on my project. First, however, promise silence. Give me your word, old friend.

' *Trop.* My honour—Now you know you are sure of me.'

In the dedication to the Hon. Mr. Phipps, Mr. Colman has shewn himself equally the friend of just panegyric, and the enemy of servile adulation.

XIV. *Sentimental Fables. Designed chiefly for the Use of the Ladies.*
8vo. 6s. bound. Robinson.

' **F**ABLE, says the author of the work before us, from the earliest ages, has appeared to the greatest and wisest of men the most eligible of all vehicles to convey instruction.' Yet he seems not to be fully convinced that it is really so, hav-

having made many of the prefatory morals to his fables longer than the fables to which they belong, which cannot be necessary, if fable is the best vehicle of instruction.

It is nevertheless certain that instruction may be conveyed more forcibly by fable than by precept; but to that end it is necessary that the moral not only appear at first sight, but carry conviction of its truth; qualities which many of these *Sentimental Fables* do not possess: from the ninth, for instance, we can extract no moral, except that the wicked often meet with the fate they merit; yet the moral intended is widely different, as appears by the following lines which precede that fable.

'The avaricious will not spare
To rob the orphan, cheat the heir:
Nor honesty nor honour rests
Within such sordid culprits' breasts.
This truth to view in clearest light,
Attend while I my tale recite.'

From a perusal of the Preface, we were led to expect many excellencies in our author's style, as we are told that he has 'laboured to couch the *perceptive* sentiments in pithy and expressive terms, to adorn them with the elegance of language and harmonious versification; and, at the same time, to render them sufficiently obvious, has endeavoured to express them in the most easy, flowing, and intelligible style.' We have been, however, much disappointed: instead of elegance of language, harmonious versification, and the most easy, flowing, and intelligible style, we have met with mean and incorrect expressions, harsh versification, with ungrammatical, unintelligible language. We shall quote a few examples to justify this assertion.

Ungrammatical, or unintelligible, passages:

'What's new and strange the mind *mislead*;'

'You'd find, says he, *that* every sage,
In every nation, every age,
Confessing frankly'——

'The hog————

Content in troughs of wash when falling,
'The goat with whey-face, milk-sop, calling.
Who rallied in his turn the hog.'

'Another swain, *who* sigh'd so strong,
He blew a settlement along,
And then the love she once profess'd,
She frankly own'd was all a jest.'

' When with joy transported thither,
Overcome I die and wither,
Sweets I there receive retaining,
Will for ever be remaining.

' One lamb——
She so caress'd and cocker'd, 'till
No just restraint could curb her will.'

' You to the French impute conceit,
To Spaniards pride, to Scots deceit,
To Germans dull; the Dutch are rude.'

' Indeed this horrid match *don't* please me,'

' The weazel of this source bereft,
Soon all his friends *neglect* and *left*.'

Neglected and *left* would have spoiled the measure; *neglect*
and *leave* would have spoiled the rhyme; therefore *neglect* and
left.

' —— 'its strange to me,
Who such superior merit see,
That all your strength and courage can
Yield to that two-legg'd creature, man;
To such an animal submitted,
To be by him *bestrode* and bitted;
This I with indignation view.'

What does he view with indignation? Not a horse *bestriden*
and bitted—the words do not convey such a sense.

' Tho' every year a calf she brought him,
Yet an ungrateful monster thought him;
For in his service, now grown old,
Last night was to a butcher sold.'

Poor *Last Night*!—to be sold to a butcher!

Harsh versification.

' And those who feed on iron or wood.'
' Heats, colds, storms, and the light'ning's rage.'
' The satyrift his own ignorance shows.'
' True wisdom's lore in fabulous lays.'

Mean, or incorrect, expressions.

' In her own proper *dark obscurity*.'
' A swan who *row'd* in decent pride,
Her consort *sailing* by her side.'

The female swan, probably, could only *row*, or she would have *sail'd*, as well as her consort.

' Therefore in time he'll perish, or
No longer live a bachelor.'

Will marrying immediately, then, make him immortal?

' Who *did* like other matrons *do*.'

' By ancient *bards*, and modern *rhymes*.'

' Fable VIII. The Fox, the Otter, and Badger.

' In Ireland once a friendly pair,
(All things are hospitable there)
As fauntring cheek by jowl they walk'd,
Thus to *the* fox *an* otter talk'd.'

Does it appear by this, what animals this pair were?

Our author assures us that he has 'not reluctantly indulged the sportings of fancy, or neglected the embellishments of wit, to captivate the young and the polite.'

We have sought with diligence these sportings of fancy and embellishments of wit; but in vain. We shall be glad, however, if the reader proves more successful.

XV. *A Dictionary of the Portuguese and English Languages, in Two Parts, Portuguese and English: and English and Portuguese. Wherein, 1. The Words are explained in their different Meanings, by Examples from the best Portuguese and English Writers. 2. The Etymology of the Portuguese generally indicated from the Latin, Arabic, and other Languages. The whole interspersed with a great Number of Phrases and Proverbs. By Anthony Vieyra Translagano. Two Vols. 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Nourse.*

Notwithstanding the commercial intercourse that has for a long time subsisted between Great Britain and Portugal, the present is the first dictionary of the Portuguese and English languages, that has hitherto been published in this country: a small work, under the title of a Portuguese and English Vocabulary, appeared many years ago, but it was such a trifling performance that it could be of no advantage for the purpose intended. This dictionary, therefore, being the first of the kind, the execution of it must have been attended with extraordinary difficulty, and we are informed that it has been the employment of many years. It comes

comes into the world under the patronage of lord Clive, who is himself acquainted with the Portuguese language, which is so necessary for the purposes of war and commerce in many of the remote regions, especially in the East Indies. We shall deliver in the author's own words the principal objects to which he adhered in compiling this work.

* I. To make it as copious as possible.

* II. To exemplify the different significations of the same word in both languages, with such accuracy and clearness as might give a perfect and distinct knowledge to the learners, of their true genius and idioms.

* III. Generally to authorise, in the second part, the words by the names of the principal English writers, in whose works they are found.

* IV. To point out the etymology of many Portuguese words from other languages, not omitting even the Arabic and Persian.

* V. To insert the Portuguese and English words that are either obsolete, or little used; and those that are only poetical.

* Finally, the reader will find inserted in their proper places, all words that have crept into the Portuguese language from the conquests of that nation, and its commerce upon the coasts of Africa, Asia, and America; especially the terms of Coins, Measures, Offices, Titles, &c. which are used in those parts of the world, or are to be met in the Portuguese books containing travels through Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and other remote countries.

The utility of this publication will not be confined to those whose fortune leads them into India for the interests of commerce, but will also extend to the general concerns of literature, by making us acquainted with many valuable works which we are informed are written in the Portuguese language. Whatever contributes to the increase of learning, and facilitates the intercourse between different nations, ought certainly to meet with the encouragement of the public; and from these considerations we hope, that Mr. Anthony Vieyra Transagano * will never have reason to repent his having bestowed the attention of so many years on such a laborious work.

* This gentleman teaches grammatically the Latin, Arabic, Persian, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese languages.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

XVI. *Oeuvres du Comte Algarotti. Traduit de l'Italien. 7 vols. 8vo. Berlin.*

FROM a concise account of the late count Algarotti's life and character*, we now proceed to a short view of his works, which, with respect to the generality of English readers, may be divided into such as, having already been translated into our language, and noticed in our Review, may well be supposed to be sufficiently known; and such as have not as yet been naturalised in our tongue, and whose contents therefore deserve to be particularly enumerated.

With regard to the former class, we may content ourselves with observing, that in this collection they appear improved by all the corrections, alterations, additions, and that careful solicitude natural to a fond parent who was zealous and indefatigable to give his literary productions not a mere transient existence, but a judicious education: that soundness of materials, that regularity of plan, that spirit of execution, and those graces of diction, which alone are able to secure to the offspring of genius a general approbation, and continuance of esteem.

Vol. I. consists of his Dialogues on Sir Isaac Newton's Optics, to which a dedication to the king of Prussia, and some commendatory copies of English, French, and Italian verses are prefixed, and his original very elegant dedication to M. de Fontenelle is subjoined.

Vol. II. contains a Collection of Essays on the Polite Arts, viz. an Essay on the French Academy of Painting established at Rome; on Architecture; on Painting; on the Opera; and an Illustration of the Sentiments delivered in the latter, by the outlines of an opera, *Æneas at Troy*; and a complete Opera, entitled, *Iphigenia in Aulis*, originally written by the author in the French language.

In Vol. III. we meet with an instructive and entertaining variety of miscellaneous essays; viz. one on the Necessity of Writing in one's Native Tongue, addressed to father Bettinelli; one on the French Language, fraught with very natural and sensible reflexions; an Essay on Rhyme, and its effect on the different species of poetry; one concerning the duration of the reigns of the kings of Rome, in which he follows the traces of Newton through the labyrinths of chronology; an Essay on the Battle of Zama, directed against Mr. de Folard's famous System of the Military Column, and inscribed to field-marshal Keith; one on the Empire of the Peruvian Yncas, where justice is done to the wisdom, the humanity, and greatness of these memorable legislators, as will appear from some select passages here subjoined.

* Of the false opinions of those who entirely confine themselves to erudition, that which represents to us the Greeks and the Romans as the only nations deserving our attention, may be considered as one of the grossest errors. Such is the power of this prejudice, that most men of learning think those people utterly unworthy of their regard, whom they are pleased to call savages, because they have not had a Thucydides or a Titus Livius for his-

* See Crit. Rev. vol. xxxvi. p. 226.

torians. But those who, not contented with travelling over the world of the ancients with a few authors for their guides, know how to survey the vast extent of the globe, think in a very different manner. They are sensible that among the nations most despised by our men of learning, instructions for civil life and great examples are to be found. The political constitution of several countries of the new world, offers a large field for minds capable of reflection, and willing to indulge it; and if European physics has been enriched by the natural productions of America, the history of the same country may furnish us with objects equally proper to enrich the science of legislation and that of manners.

‘ In North America, the commonwealth of the Iroquois stands foremost: and this rank they owe to their conquests, their love of liberty, their ardent zeal for glory; to their general notion that no other nation on earth is comparable to themselves; an opinion, which, when supported by activity and valour, can effectively make a nation what she imagines herself to be. Their chiefs, or sachems, prove a disinterestedness unexampled in our civilized countries: their highest reward is honour; their severest punishment, shame: such are the principal springs of their actions. Slow and reserved in deciding; prompt in executing; faithful observers of treaties; full of respect for the public faith and for justice; intrepid in the most imminent danger; firm in the most disastrous extremity; they deserve to be compared, perhaps even to be preferred, to the Romans. But as the virtue of these was at length corrupted by Asiatic luxury, that of the Iroquois has been impaired by European intemperance, which has found its way among them.

‘ History affords us few events more worthy of our attention than the actions of the Peruvian Yncas. There we behold the most singular means employed for a great purpose; maxims of the most consummate politics; instances of piety, magnificence, and courage; in a word, a family far from being powerful, rising from the weakest beginnings to the sovereignty of Peru and of Chili, of extensive and very rich countries, and founding a flourishing empire, to which few of our European states may be compared.

‘ Manco-Capac, the ancestor of the Yncas, was, towards the middle of the thirteenth century, the Romulus of this empire. But it was with arms in his hands, and at the head of a gang of banditti, that Romulus pretended to be a son of Mars. Manco, singly, without any adherents, and without arms, announced himself, like Orpheus, as the son of the sun, who sent him to raise man from a state of rudeness, in which they led a life nearly resembling that of brutes. He instructed them in the most necessary arts, employed, and civilised them, and, the better to secure their obedience, had the dexterity of multiplying their wants. He conducted himself with such prudence, as to assemble a multitude of savages; to put himself at their head; and to found the city of Cusco, which soon became the Rome of these vast countries. His descendants and successors, with yet greater forces, laboured with still greater success to accomplish the design which he could only sketch: and prudence, opportunity, and fortune, were seen to co-operate in the execution of the same enterprize.’

From this collective view he comes to the political conduct of the Yncas, with respect to religion, civilization, conquests, coalition of the conquering and conquered people; to husbandry and arts; to the classification of their subjects; he contrasts their government with that of China, and dwells with a kind of predilection

dilection on their very particular care of the education of youth.

But what must make us consider the Peruvians as superior to all other nations, are the wise regulations which they made in all the provinces of their empire, concerning the education of children. Of all the legislators, the Yncas appear to have best understood the influence of habit on genius and character. They made it one of the chief concerns of the state; with that the Peruvians began: they shared with the ancient Persians the glory, that their conduct relative to the education of youth will be considered as a philosophical fiction.

He justly admires the happiness of the Peruvians in an uninterrupted series of twelve most excellent sovereigns, who almost in every respect resembled Trajan, the best of princes, pious, virtuous, magnanimous; who with equal activity and success promoted the happiness and the glory of Rome, and appeared to be born an honour to the human, and a representative of the divine nature. For more than two hundred years Peru saw its people effectively enjoy the golden age, which every where else is but a poetical fiction.

The destruction of this masterpiece of human wisdom count Algarotti accounts for, from the character of Atabalipa, the Peruvian Caligula; from the amazement naturally produced in a nation utterly unacquainted with navigation and horses, by a race of men who appeared to fly over the sea, and whose horsemen they considered as so many centaurs; and from the first, but furious, internal divisions of that empire.

His next essay is a review of Mr. Racine's examen of the question, Why great geniuses generally appear and flourish together, and at the same time? a copious subject for speculation. With Mr. Racine he begins by reviewing the well known short list of the golden ages of genius; that of Philip and Alexander, in Greece; of Cæsar and Augustus at Rome; of Julius II. and Leo X. in modern Italy; of Lewis XIV. in France; to which Algarotti afterwards joins the age of Milton, Addison, Locke, and Newton, in England; and with Mr. Racine he considers the different methods adopted by several reasoners, in order to account for this literary phenomenon, by referring it either to physical or moral causes.

The opinion of those who pretend that there are ages peculiarly favourable to the productions of genius, as with regard to the produce of the earth there are years of plenty, is by both readily abandoned to rhetoricians. But the sentiments of those who refer the disparity of ages to moral causes, such as the tranquillity of a state, its greatness, and chiefly the patronage of sovereigns, are considered with impartiality and attention.

To the advantages which works of genius are said to derive from the tranquillity of a state, they object Demosthenes and Cicero, the most eloquent orators flourishing in the most turbulent ages. And, indeed, to us it appears, that eloquence, at least, must naturally and necessarily thrive best in turbulent climes and seasons; where amidst a variety of important personal concerns, the conflict of vehement passions, the spirit of emulation, the opposition of interests, the struggles of factions, all the powers of the mind are roused, inflamed, exalted, enabled to feel and exert themselves.

To the influence of the greatness of states, the instance of Tuscany is opposed; a country comparatively small, yet very fertile in eminent men.

With respect to the power of patronage, it has been observed, that in order to promote and invigorate the progress of genius, patrons must themselves be learned, or connoisseurs, or listen to such as are learned, or connoisseurs; that, even then, patronage may but prevent the decline of science and of arts; that Gallilei, Des Cartes, and Newton, appeared before the foundation of academies; and that sublime geniuses are like the great bodies of the universe, which, according to Plato, were not produced by inferior divinities, but created by God himself.

Thus far both Racine and Algarotti agree in rejecting the sentiments of those who pretend to solve the question by physical or moral causes. But now Racine proposes his own opinion; which, in its turn, is objected to by Algarotti.

Racine asserts, that the success or authority of one man of genius, who enters the true road, is sufficient to engage all the rest to follow him, even those who are employed in pursuits different from his own: since as they are employed on the same model, nature, they assist each other; thus sciences and arts are said to go nearly hand in hand, and to arrive at one and the same time at perfection: and in support of this singular assertion, he refers to the example of Corneille, who, by pursuing the true and natural way, was, as it were, the father of that great number of eminent writers and artists, whose talents he excited.

Algarotti allows the power of example to be very great; yet thinks it insufficient to produce the effect in question. He supposes, that one great poetical genius may excite other poets, and even orators, painters, &c. but doubts his influence on philosophers and metaphysicians. He recollects that Aristotle gave, at the same time, the most excellent precepts of poetry, and very indifferent lessons of physics; that Virgil and Horace were great poets, at a time when physics were yet in their infancy.

In such countries, therefore, where sciences and arts have first been invented and cultivated, those who excel in them, must, in count Algarotti's opinion, arise successively, and at intervals: in these regions, on the contrary, whither they have been transplanted, they will appear in a crowd. To him it appears, that those who have treated the question, have with great subtilty and ingenuity investigated the reason of a chimera.

In the following essay he discusses the famous question, Whether national characters are formed by the influence of the climate, or of legislation? The former opinion has been maintained by Bodin, and Du Bos, but chiefly by baron Montesquieu in his *Spirit of Laws*; the latter by Machiavel, and Mr. David Hume. Count Algarotti steers a middle course, and we will content ourselves with giving the result of his investigation in his own words.

“From all the premises, we ought to conclude, that the best part to be taken in these questions, is to keep a just medium, by referring national characters to the concurrence of physical and moral causes; allowing, however, that the influence of the latter proves the stronger and more evident.”

His Essay on Paganism is summed up in the following reflexions equally judicious and edifying: “Religion has produced so much good, that even those who have most zealously endeavoured to make mankind shake off the salutary yoke of authority, have at last been forced to confess its necessity and usefulness; so that instead of saying:

Tantum

Tantum religio potuit suadere malorum ;
they ought to exclaim,

Tantum religio potuit fecisse bonorum !

If even false religions have not been useless to civil society, and if they have not darkened the light of their votaries, it must be confessed that the light of truth herself cannot but impart new strength to our understanding, and that mankind must derive infinite advantages from the word of God, that is from that religion, which, when faithfully practised, renders mankind happy even in this life, and supremely blessed in the next.

In his Essay on Des Cartes he proves himself just to the merit, and candid to the mistakes and errors of that famous philosopher.

We will, however, by no means throw a shade over the brilliant name of that philosopher. He will always be admired for the vast extent of his genius ; for having enlarged the boundaries of algebra, by applying it to geometry ; for having placed himself at the head of so numerous a sect ; and, notwithstanding all his defects, he will always be considered as one of the luminaries of the philosophical world. In all his works we find evident traces of great genius ; some trifles excepted, his Dissertation on Method is a masterpiece, and, as it were, an eagle's glance on the scientific world. If therefore we refuse him the glory of having been the confidant of nature, and of having taught mankind the art of thinking, we must at least assign him one of the most honourable ranks among the teachers of mankind. Philosophers ought to treat Des Cartes with a respect somewhat similar to that with which Jupiter is treated by critics, who when they dethrone him from his poetical Olympus, reinstate him at least on the throne of Crete, assigned to him by history.

Of the two last Essays in the third volume, one delineates the advantages accruing to nations from trade ; the other displays the whole character of Horace in a most amiable light.

[To be continued.]

XVII. *Oraison Funebre de très-haut, très-puissant, et très-excellent Prince Charles Emanuel III. Roy de Sardaigne ; prononcée dans l'Eglise de Paris, par Cesar Guillaume de la Luzerne, Evêque Duc de Langres, Pair de France. 4to. Paris.*

THE tribute of praise paid in this Funeral Oration to the character of his late Sardinian majesty, will, we presume, by impartial nations be allowed to be just, and ratified by posterity as a '*laus quasita meritis*.'

The text *, indeed, appears at first to threaten his memory, but is instantly softened by this observation, that 'to a blameless life the most rigorous judgment is the most favourable.'

In the oration itself, we find, 1. the judgment of his people ; and 2. of Europe elegantly displayed ; and, 3. the decisive judgment of God, with Christian humility and confidence resigned to his mercy.

Under the first division, the orator celebrates his hero's love of justice and respect for the laws ; his legislation ; his political economy ; his careful attention to commerce, arts, and the protection of his dominions ; his condescending affability and humanity to all

* Præbete aures, vos qui continetis multitudines—judicium durissimum his qui præsumunt fiet. *Sapient. cap. vi.*

his subjects, and delineates a portrait equally amiable in public and in private life.

The lives of the best and wisest sovereigns are sometimes involved in difficulties exceedingly perplexing, not only to themselves and their ministers and courtiers, but to the most unbiassed historian, not less than to the most zealous and ablest panegyrist.

An instance of this, our readers will presently recollect to have happened, when Victor Amadeus, soon after having deliberately and solemnly resigned his crown to his son, endeavoured to re-ascend the throne, and was, after many anxious deliberations and violent struggles betwixt filial and royal duties, by order of his successor very respectfully put and detained under confinement.

This most unfortunate incident was too generally known to be entirely omitted in a display of the judgment of his people and of Europe, and of too delicate a complexion to be entered upon in a funeral eulogium.—But we will gratify the curiosity of our readers, with the orator's expedient for extricating himself, in his own words *.

In referring to the judgment of Europe, he paints the military and political talents, merits, and successes of his hero; and concludes with fervent wishes for a durable and general peace.

But the substance of the third part, and indeed, the spirit of the whole oration, will best be perceived in the conclusion, which we will here subjoin as a specimen both of the orator's sentiments and diction.

* *Le prince qui fit toujours la guerre avec gloire, et qui toujours aima et chercha la paix; qui ajouta de nouvelles provinces à sa domination, en inspirant la confiance à tous les souverains; qui fit les Loix de son pays et les respecta: qui ferme défenseur de son autorité, n'en abusa jamais; et qui sut allier à la magnificence qui annonce la splendeur des nations, l'économie qui les rend heureuses et redoutées; qui dans cette haute elevation où tant de cœurs s'endurcissent, ressentit les tendresses du sang, les douceurs de l'amitié, le bonheur de l'affabilité et de la bienfaisance; dont la piété vive fût éclairée, dont le zèle actif fût prudent;—qui réunit tous ces genres de mérite, et ne les dûit qu'à lui même; parlez, siècle présent, car vous êtes déjà pour lui la postérité; parlez, dictez aux générations futures le jugement qu'elles doivent répéter. Nation, qu'il à regie, ouvrez vos annales, écrivez y le jugement qu'a déjà prononcé votre reconnoissance. Dieu qui l'avez jugé, s'il a porté au pied de votre tribunal quelque malheureux reste de la fragilité hu-*

* *A la suite de ce brillant spectacle, (de l'abdication) quelle triste revolution!—Non je ne troublerai point la cendre auguste de Victor Amédée; je respecterai la mémoire d'un grand homme, à qui cinquante années de travaux et d'exploits ont acquis le droit d'imposer silence à la postérité, sur un instant d'erreur; je respecterai l'ayeul de mon roi, le pere de mon heros: et j'entends Charles Emmanuel lui même qui de la region des morts me crie: je te defends de faire un reproche à la mémoire sacrée de mon pere; garde toi même de rappeler, ni les conseils qui forcerent ma resistance, ni les vœux d'un peuple effraïé auxquels je me crus obligé de déférer; dis quel fût toujours mon respect pour l'auteur de mes jours, pour ses volontés, pour ses principes, pour toute son administration: parle, si tu veux, de ma douleur, qui dura autant que ma vie; mais ne la reveille pas après ma mort.—Je vous obéis, grand prince! je me tais sur l'intarissable sujet de vos larmes.* &c. &c.*

maine

maine, que les vœux de deux grandes nations, que le sang de vôtre fils, achevent de flechir vôtre justice.*

Serious readers, if such there are, of funeral orations, may, perhaps, in most of them, wish to see brilliant figures, and harmony of period, exchanged for solidity of thought, for majesty of sentiment, and justness of expression; and think, even in this, several passages rather fit to shine in an academy, than to edify in a temple, and in the name of a nation to pay to the memory of a Christian sovereign its due by the weight of the sanctuary*.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

18. *Voyage de la Raison en Europe; par l'Auteur des Lettres Récréatives et Morales.* 12mo. Compiègne et Paris.

IN order to catch the fashionable taste of the age, Reason herself, as tutored by the author of this entertaining and multifarious performance, travels extra-post over the laws, manners, and customs of Europe. Her decisive glances are often too rapid to be just; her dictates too fond of brilliant sallies, quaintness, and affectation to suit the grave, judicial character of sound sense.

We are therefore apt to suppose this spirited wanderer, to be some humorous wit, who, under the mask of reason, pursues the traces of Montesquieu †: whether,

“ Passibus æquis? ——— ”

Scit genius natale comes qui temperat astrum.”

19. *Traité des Horloges Marines, contenant la Théorie, la Construction, la Main d'Oeuvre de ces Machines, et la Maniere de les éprouver, pour parvenir par leur moyen à la Rectification des Cartes Marines et à la Détermination des Longitudes en Mer. Dédié à sa Majesté et publié par ses Ordres, Par M. Ferdinand Berthoud, Horloger Mécanicien du Roi et de la Marine, ayant l'Inspection de la Construction des Horloges Marines; Membre de la Société Royale de Londres.* 1 vol. 4to. (with 27 plates.) Paris.

After twenty years application, and after having already, in 1763, published an ‘Essai sur l'Horlogerie,’ in two quarto volumes, Mr. Berthoud here again evinces himself a great artist, an excellent writer, and a man of public spirit. His uncommon talents for his art, his unwearied spirit of invention, his attention to the most delicate and most minute particulars, his perseverance against all difficulties and disappointments, his candour in relating and accounting for his former miscarriages; his liberality in publishing without reserve, in this elaborate, methodical, and elegant work, the final results and successes of his labours, with all the reasonings, measures, instruments, and manual proceedings, by which they were obtained, entitle him to the thanks of every artist who finds his way cleared, and his progress in the same pursuit facilitated by his zeal for the improvement of his art.

20. *Le Porte-feuille amusant, ou Nouvelles Variétés Littéraires. Par l'Auteur de l'Elève de la Nature.* 12mo. Paris.

Containing a poem in prose on the rape of Europa by Jupiter; said to have been written by a certain Cadmicus, a 'squire, and servant to Europa's brother. 2. Irene ou le malheur d'être femme, a tragedy in prose, of two acts, on the lamentable end of the fair

* Justa solvere,

† In his Persian Letters,

Grecian Irene, sacrificed by Mahomet II. to his bloody, horrid, inhuman, and barbarous politics. 3. *Lesbie ou le Retour à la Vertu*, scenes comico-lyriques, (comico-lyriques, we suppose.) 4. Twenty-five fables in prose. 5. *Le Seigneur bienfaisant*, a pastoral drama in one act.

All these prose poems have, no doubt, afforded great amusement to their author, and, we hope, have cost him little labour; since, probably, cantavit vacuus, coram latrone viator, fearless alike of piracy and criticism; and lulled even his compositor and corrector asleep, as may be naturally supposed, on observing seven errata crowded into one line and a half, p. 254.

————— Fungare, vice cotis, acutum

Reddere quæ ferrunt valet, exfors ipsa secundâ.

21. *Coup d'oeil éclairé d'une Bibliothèque, à l'Usage de tout Possesseur de Livres.* Par M. ***. 8vo. Paris.

We cannot but admire the original genius of this author who, by dint of mere manual labour, has produced a useful and elegant volume, the contents of which however are nothing more than a collection of titles of books, printed on large types; designed to be cut out and pasted on their backs; and may be applied with equal facility to a wooden library.

22. *Elemens d'Algebre, par M. Leonard Euler, traduits de l'Allemand avec des Notes et des Additions (par M. Bernoulli, Directeur de Observatoire de Berlin.)* 2 vols. 8vo. Lyon et Paris.

The first volume contains 'l'Analyse déterminée; ' the second, ' l'Analyse indéterminée,' with additions of M. de la Grange. The reputation of Mess. Euler, Bernoulli, and la Grange, are sufficient vouchers for the merit of this work.

23. *Pensées sur différens Sujets, par un Ancien Militaire.* 12mo. Langres et Paris.

This ancient French warrior proves himself a zealous Christian, a worthy citizen, a philanthrope, and a man of sense: endearments sufficient to preclude any slight defects in authorship from the severity of criticism.

24. *L'Art du Plombier-Fontainier.* (folio, with plates.) Paris.

The plumber's trade, at the first view, appears to be very simple: yet such is the variety of its operations and uses, that their full and distinct explication takes here up not less than 206 folio pages.

25. *Le Triomphe de l'Amour sur les Mœurs de ce Siècle, ou Lettres du Marquis de Mürzin au Commandeur de S. Brice.* 2 vols. 12mo. Paris.

A striking delineation of French manners.

26. *Phædri Fabulæ. L. Annæi Senecæ ac Publii Syri Sententiæ, Aureliæ.* 16mo. (Orléans.)

An edition, by its uncommon elegance, and the excessive smallness of its print, at once charming and pernicious to the eyes.

27. *Aménités Littéraires et Recueil d'Anecdotes.* 2 vols. 8vo.

A compilation of many known facts and trite thoughts, seasoned with many a legendary tale.

28. *Traité des Delits et des Peines, traduit de l'Italien d'après la Sixième Edition, revue, corrigée, et augmentée de plusieurs Chapitres par l'Auteur: auquel on a joint plusieurs piéces très intéressantes pour l'Intelligence du Texte.* Par M. C. D. L. B. A. 12mo. Paris.

The most correct and complete French translation of signor Beccaria Bonafana's work.

29. *Histoire Romaine de Tite-Live, traduite en François, avec le Supplement de Freinsheimius.* 10 vols. 12mo. Paris.

Professor Guerin's translation of Livy appears here corrected throughout by professor Cossin.

30. *Dictionnaire pour l'Intelligence des Auteurs Classiques Grecs et Latins, tant Sacrés que Profanes; contenant la Géographie, l'Histoire, la Fable, et les Antiquités.* Par M. Sabbathier, Professeur au Collège de Châlons sur Marne, et Secrétaire perpétuel de l'Académie de la même Ville. Tome XIV, 559 pages. 8vo. Paris.

We will readily give this writer credit for fourteen closely printed volumes of solid sense and erudition, the last of which just ends with the nomenclature of the letter D; but cannot help lamenting that the dimensions of his plan seem rather calculated for an antediluvian age, than for our transient span of life. Eheu! fugaces, Posthume, Posthume—Labuntur anni.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

D I V I N I T Y.

31. *Institutes of Natural and Revealed Religion. Vol. II. Containing the Evidences of the Jewish and Christian Revelations.* By Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F.R.S. 2s. 6d. sewed. Johnson.

IN the first part of this volume, the author treats of the state of religion and morals among the ancient heathens, before the coming of Christ. He shews the corruption of their theology, the looseness of their moral sentiments, and the uncertainty of their notions with respect to a future existence.

In the second part, he makes some observations on the nature, use, and credibility of miracles. In the third, he states the evidences of the Jewish and Christian religions derived from testimony. In the fourth, he considers their evidence resulting from present appearances. In the fifth, he examines their evidence arising from prophecy. In the sixth, the evidence of several miracles, which have been said to have been wrought for other purposes than the confirmation of the divine revelation. In the conclusion, he answers the objections of unbelievers.

As this work is chiefly designed for young persons, the author has availed himself of every thing he could meet with, which he thought proper for their use. This he very readily and ingenuously acknowledges. In the first part he has made great use of a treatise of Dr. Leland's, intitled, *The Advantage and Necessity of the Christian Revelation, shewed from the State of Religion in the ancient heathen World*; and as all the articles he has mentioned are much more largely discussed in that excellent work, where the proper authorities are alledged, he has made no particular reference to authors in this abstract. On the subject of prophecy, he has made use of bishop Newton's *Discourses*. And in refuting the pretended miracles of Apollonius Tyanæus, he has borrowed several arguments from Dr. Dodridge's *Lectures*.

Though

Though the subject of this volume is trite, it is far from being exhausted; but, like every other subject of great importance, affords room for any person, who gives much attention to it, to find either some new arguments for it, or, at least, to set the old ones in some new and more striking point of light. Some merit of this kind must be allowed to the ingenious Dr. Priestley, especially in what relates to the general distribution of his materials; which is easy and natural, and calculated to exhibit the evidences of revelation with strength and perspicuity.

32. *A Sermon preached in the Parish Church of Newbury, Berks, Jan. 14, 1774, at the Funeral of the rev. John Gere, LL.B. Fellow of Winchester. By the rev. Thomas Penrose, Curate of Newbury.* 4to. 1s. Walter.

A pathetic address to the auditors on the happiness of those, 'who die in the Lord,' with a sketch of Mr. Gere's character.

CONTROVERSIAL.

33. *Opinions concerning the University of Oxford, and Subscription to the Thirty-nine Articles. By a Clergyman.* 4to. 1s. Evans.

The university of Oxford can derive no great honour from this publication; as it contains nothing but some vague and insignificant observations on the importance of that learned seminary, the pernicious tendency of the association for the repeal of subscriptions, the danger of admitting any change in our religious establishment, the absolute necessity of articles for the preservation of the church, and other topics of the like nature.

34. *A Farewell Address to the Parishioners of Catterick. By Theophilus Lindsey, M.A.* 8vo. 6d. Johnson.

The worthy and conscientious author acquaints his parishioners with the motives which have induced him to quit his station and ministry in the church*; he reminds them of his usual exhortations from the pulpit, concerning the nature of practical religion, the importance of family-prayer, and the religious observance of the sabbath; after which he takes his leave of them in these affectionate and pathetic terms:

'Soon shall all the friendships and connections of this world be dissolved, and at an end. The parting, and the separation, which death must have made betwixt us in a few years, perhaps much sooner, is only anticipated a little. And it may be a providential blessing to both you and me, if I may but thereby be approved, and found faithful unto the end, for which I desire the help of your prayers; and if this my voluntary dismissal of myself from my station and ministry among you, to which I am constrained by a principle of conscience and obedience to Christ, as I firmly believe, may contribute to convince you,

'That the gospel of Jesus is the truth of God—the pearl of great price, Matth. xiii. 45. for which we are to be willing to part with every thing rather than fail of obtaining it: to induce you

* See Crit. Rev. for Jan. last, p. 49.

‘ To do nothing now, which you shall not approve at that solemn hour when you leave the world :

‘ And to be ready at all times, and even desirous to have the common-prayer book reformed, and the public worship of God in it made more conformable to the holy scriptures, for your own sakes, and that of your conscientious pastors, whenever it shall please God, in his providence, to incline our gracious prince and parliament to set about so needful a work.

‘ And now, O Holy Father, *the blessed and only potentate*, in conformity to what I believe thy will and my duty, I resign unto thee, from whom I received them, my ministry and people. Do thou raise up unto them a faithful teacher, who shall more effectually preach thy word, turn many from sin, and bring all nearer to thee, their only portion and happiness. And graciously dispose of me, thine unworthy servant, where and how I may best be enabled to serve thee according to the pure gospel of thy Son, through whom I desire to find acceptance with thee, now and for ever.’

Though we reverence this worthy clergyman for resigning his preferment, out of a principle of conscience, yet we are sorry to see any of the ablest advocates of the church of England, deserting her banners, and retiring from the field in the day of battle. We wish to see them engaged in accomplishing a reformation, which they cannot attempt with so much advantage, when they have left the church, as when they are members of it. Her friends should never give her up in despair.

35. *Enquiries into the Archetype of the Septuagint Version, its Authenticity, and different Editions.* By the rev. H. S. Cruwys. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Law.

The design of this treatise is to enquire, 1. Whether there ever was such a version of the Bible, as that of the Septuagint; 2. Whether the accounts which are usually given of it agree, with regard to the time when it was written, the number and inspiration of the interpreters, the parts they translated, &c. 3. Whether such a version be still extant; and, lastly, what are the principal editions of it.

The author seems to have taken some pains in collecting the sentiments of Usher, Vossius, Walton, P. Simon, Thorndike, and other eminent writers, upon these points. But his enquiries are dispatched in a summary way, without affording any considerable pleasure or satisfaction to an inquisitive reader.

P O E T R Y.

36. *Lyric Poems, Devotional and Moral.* By Thomas Scott, 8vo. 3s. 6d. Buckland.

The author of these pieces has aimed, in the choice and arrangement of their several subjects, to form a kind of poetical system of piety and morals. The work opens with natural religion, that is, with a Hymn to the Deity, and some Odes on the Divine Attributes and the Works of the Creation. Thence it pro-

proceeds to the Mission of Jesus Christ, his Sufferings, his Exaltation, and the Propagation of his Doctrine; afterwards to Repentance, and the Blessedness of a Christian Life. These topics are succeeded by the various Branches of Devotion, The personal and social Duties, The happy End of a sincere Christian, and the Coming of Jesus Christ to finish his mediatorial Kingdom by the general Judgment. The whole is closed with a description of those illustrious times, when, by means of the Gospel, 'the earth shall be full of the knowledge of the Lord, as the waters cover the sea.'

As these poems are upon moral and religious subjects, the author has frequently adopted the sentiments of the sacred writers; and placed the references to the corresponding texts at the bottom of the page.

In the following hymn, the author has taken his ideas from the sixth psalm. The reader may compare it with Mr. Addison's Ode on the same subject*. The superiority, however, is evidently on the side of the Spectator.

* Manifestation of GOD in the Heavens.

' The firmament's stupendous frame,
Where worlds on worlds in order flame,
In order wheel their azure rounds,
Thy grandeur, mighty God, resounds.

' Day rolling after day displays
Thy providence, with lofty praise.
In shadowy robe night rides along,
And echoes loud the lasting song.

' Their universal voice demands
Attention, from all reason's lands,
To every clime their speech is known,
Let every clime thy wonders own.

' All in majestic splendor bright,
Thy pow'rful minister of light,
Forth from his eastern palace, gay,
Springs out, to shed his vital ray.

' Gay as a youth, in glowing bloom,
Forth issues from his spousal room;
Strong as a champion racer's force,
He rushes to his mighty course.

' With swift career, from heav'n's extreme
To heav'n's remotest end, his beam
Illumes, O earth, thy joyous seat;
And warms all nature with his heat.'

These compositions are not distinguished by any peculiar grace or dignity of language; but animated by a spirit of piety and devotion. They may be ranked in the same class with the Lyric poems of Dr. Watts.—Mr. Scott is the author of a poetical translation of the book of Job, lately published.

37. *Charity: a Poetical Essay.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Horsfield.

If Charity will hide a multitude of sins, perhaps a poem, in which the practice of that virtue is recommended, has a peculiar

title to the candour and indulgence of criticism. It would be doing injustice to the author however to insinuate, that we have reviewed his production with any degree of lenity on account of the subject of which it treats; and we must impartially acknowledge, that it has a claim to poetical merit. The author inforces benevolence by rational and ingenious sentiments, and the measure, which is blank verse, is, in general, elevated and correct.

38. *Vice, a Satire.* 4to. 1s. Bew.

This piece is written in a stile far superior to what we generally find in compositions of this kind. The vices, which the author particularly stigmatizes, are ambition, oppression, murder, adultery, seduction, and prostitution. The first of these is characterized in this nervous language.

Behold with giant stride Ambition tow'r,
His red arm bare, his buskins steep'd in gore;
With Satan's pride assume the awful nod,
Spurn little earth, and emulate a God:
In his steel'd breast each softer passion dies,
With all the train of tender amities;
Fair Meekness droops, unhonour'd, and unheard,
And weeping Pity pours her wail unheard.

The fatal consequences of prostitution is very justly and pathetically described. We only wish, that the author had engaged our attention through the whole piece, by animadversions equally interesting and important.

39. *Nuptial Elegies.* 4to. 2s. Kearsly.

With what propriety the whole of these poems are classed under the title of Elegies may admit of dispute. Fruition, when not succeeded by pain or satiety, is not naturally a subject for plaintive strains. As poetical compositions, however, we do not hesitate to pronounce that they are all deserving of approbation. The first elegy, which is intitled Fruition, celebrates the happiness of the nuptial state; the second, or the Disappointment of Passion, laments the cares which arise from distressful circumstances in the married life; in the third, called the Triumph of Reason, the author draws a comparison between connubial pleasures and the guilty joys of libertinism; and, in the fourth, which is named the Winter of Love, he paints the serene delight enjoyed by a married pair in the prosperity of their children. In these Elegies, virtuous raptures and sentimental strokes of tenderness are described in an agreeable strain of poetry.

40. *Female Artifice, or Charles F—x outwitted.* 4to. 1s. Ridley.

An improbable story of a young gentleman of parts being duped by a female impostor.

D R A M A T I C.

41. *Codrus, a Tragedy.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

This tragedy, we are informed, was never intended for the stage; and the author acknowledges, that he is far from thinking it

it theatrical. We entirely concur with him in opinion, but chiefly on account of defects of which he seems not to be conscious. The dramatic action does not commence till the fourth act, when Pterilas returns from consulting the oracle at Delphos; so that the whole three antecedent acts are merely expletive, and serve for no other purpose but to eke out the production to the usual length of a tragedy. With respect to the characters, they are not sufficiently discriminated: Codrus and Adrastus seem to be distinguished only by their age; and Atalanta and Jocasta are but Codrus and Adrastus in petticoats. This production, however, contains many noble sentiments of heroic virtue and patriotism; and were it not that the author evidently entertains an imperfect idea of the nature of the drama, he seems, in other respects, to be qualified for the composition of tragedy.

42. *The Note of Hand, or Trip to Newmarket.* 8vo. 1s. Becket.

This piece exhibits a lively representation of the gamblers at Newmarket, which is interspersed with many entertaining strokes of satire. The character of Mr. O'Connor Mac Cormuck of Shallinograg, in particular, is drawn with much humour.

43. *An Appeal to the Public, from the Judgment of a certain Manager, with original Letters, and the Drama of one A2, which was refused Representation.* 8vo. 1s. Bew.

The ground of this author's grievance is a supposed indignity received from the manager of one of the theatres, in not being waited on at his own lodgings (a favour which was not requested), but politely invited to the latter's house, for holding a conference relative to a dramatic production. With what degree of reason this behaviour is construed into a personal affront, we cannot perceive. The manager's house was certainly a more proper place for such an interview than any lodgings: nor can it be supposed that Mr. G—— would conceive the most favourable opinion of his correspondent, from the intimation which he gave of his being "a gentleman and a scholar." There could be no cause to expect any unbecoming treatment, though the poet had not arrogated to himself a character which no body had called in question. A person who presumes to expose the foibles of mankind in comedy ought certainly to be more cautious of betraying any absurdity in his own conduct. — With respect to the dramatic production, which is entitled *The Politician Reformed*, we acknowledge that it is not destitute of humour; but, perhaps, the circumstance of there being another entertainment on the same subject, and well received, is sufficient to justify the manager in refusing to bring this author's production upon the stage.

44. *An easy Way to prolong Life, by a little Attention to our Manner of living. The second Part.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bell.

The observations contained in this treatise are judicious, and may undoubtedly be useful for preserving health.

MISCELLANEOUS.

45. *The Circuit of Life, a Vision; in which are allegorically described the Virtues and Vices; taken from the Tablature of Cebes, a Disciple of Socrates, for the Instruction of Youth.* 12mo. 1s. Carnan.

The allegorical form of composition was greatly practised by the ancients, and is undoubtedly attended with the advantage of conveying moral instruction in an agreeable manner. Among the productions of this kind, the Tablature of Cebes is particularly descriptive. There we find the virtues and the vices delineated with the hand of a philosopher, who was well acquainted with human life and manners, and could distinguish the different sources from whence happiness and misery arise. The production now before us is an imitation of the work of Cebes, and may be considered as an ingenious allegory.

46. *A plain Grammar of the Hebrew Language, adapted to the Use of Schools, with Biblical Examples.* By the Rev. W. H. Barker, A. B. 8vo. 1s. 6d.

The author informs us, that he found no small difficulty in teaching the Hebrew language, from the want of a proper grammar; and that he was therefore induced to draw up this little system for the use of his pupils.

The rules and observations are selected from the best grammarians, particularly the learned Mr. Parkhurst. Many superfluities are struck out, and whatever seemed to be essentially necessary is supplied. The masoretic points are justly rejected, and the naked structure of the language only is regarded.

The letters, א, ה, ו, י, יו, which, we are persuaded, are the only original vowels, are very differently sounded by different grammarians. Mr. Barker recommends the following mode of pronunciation.

'The vowels are always to be regarded as long; א is the softest sound, and to be pronounced like the ee in meet; ה like a in made; all supplied vowels like a in half; ו like au in fault; י like o in hope; יו like oo in boat.'

This work is drawn up in an easy and compendious form, and will undoubtedly facilitate the study of the Hebrew, even to such as are strangers to the principles of all grammar.

47. *The Ship-Master's Assistant, for keeping his Accounts in a plain, concise, and intelligible Method.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinson.

The method of conducting accounts on board a ship differs so very much from the practice of book-keeping in the merchant's compting-house, that even those who have had some experience therein, are generally at a loss with respect to understanding the business when engaged in sea-service; and our author remarks

that

that several men of good authority, and great proficient in navigation, have really found more trouble to keep their accounts, and to make them intelligible to their owners, than to transact any other part of the ship's business. 'I then thought (continues our author) I could not spend my time better than in writing this small book, for the assistance and improvement of those who are in want of such a help; and I hope for the indulgence of those who are not in want of it; for it was wrote with a good motive, and intended for the use of those men who have not had an opportunity of learning that useful part of book-keeping before.'

The work itself, though contained in a few pages, seems well executed, and, in our opinion, merits the attention of sea-faring men in general.

48. *Tables, calculated with great Exactness, to find the Value of any Quantity of Gold, from one Grain to fifty Ounces, from 3l. 10s. to 4l. 2s. per Ounce.* By Cater Rand. 8vo. 1s. Robinson.

It was not very difficult to foresee that a parliamentary regulation of the gold coin would occasion the most scrupulous examination of this part of the English currency when offered in payment; therefore, almost immediately after the bill had passed, a variety of new-constructed scales, balances, steelyards, &c. were offered to the public for that purpose; and as the light gold was (after being cut) made payable according to its weight, at a certain rate per ounce, Mr. Cater Rand judged these Tables might prove of general use by saving the trouble of calculation, any number of ounces less than 50 being cast up inspection, and a number greater than 50 by very easy additions. Thus, supposing 1000 light guineas, weighing 254 oz. 3 dwt. and 8 gr. sold at 3l. 17s. 6d. per ounce, I find by the tables, that 50 ounces come to 193l. 15s. and therefore 255 ounces amount to 984l. 5s. to this add 11s. 7½d. for 3 dwt. and 1s. 3½d. for 8 gr. the sum is 996l. 7s. 11d. and consequently the total loss upon those guineas is 80l. 12s. 1d.

49. *One more Proof of the Iniquitous Abuse of Private Madhouses.* By Samuel Bruckshaw. 8vo. 1s. Kearsly.

We are here presented with a circumstantial narrative of the oppression to which this plaintive has been subjected, from a false imputation of insanity. An Appendix is added, containing a variety of affidavits in support of the justice of his complaint. From this instance, as well as others, of the enormous abuse of private madhouses, it is to be wished that the legislature would devise more effectual means for restraining the horrid transactions which are perpetrated in those receptacles, in violation of every principle of liberty, justice, and humanity.

50. *A Faithful Account of the whole Transactions relating to a late Affair of Honour between J. Temple, and W. Whately, Esqrs.* 8vo. 1s. Snagg.

This account contains nothing more than what the public have already been sufficiently informed of by each of the parties.

